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ABSTRACT

A study examined the range of full-time courses for youths between the ages of 15 and 19 that are offered under Australia's Technical and Further Education (TAFE) system. Two reports resulted from the study. The first report reviewed the TAFE transition education program and formulated 20 recommendations concerning development of the Participation and Equity Program (PEP). This, the second report, focuses on forming the basis of a course structure for development at the local level of initiatives relevant to local vocational needs and circumstances and the personal needs of individuals. The first study's recommendations are summarized in the first chapter. The second chapter attempts to explain why less than half of Australian youths complete secondary schooling by examining factors influencing completion of secondary schooling and participation in postsecondary education (father's occupation, school system, achievement at age 14, family wealth, ethnic background, rurality, gender). The third chapter introduces an extensive framework for considering curricula in terms of the purpose of education, values within education, and the agents and representation of curriculum. Thirteen recommendations are made in the fourth chapter, which deals with the social reconstruction of transition education. Particular attention is paid to orientations toward curriculum values, social milieu, teachers, subject matter, literacy and numeracy, and the demands that transition education places on teachers. (Appendixes include detailed data from the 1983 and 1985 studies of the Victorian TAFE PEP population and more detailed information on the different curriculum options examined during the study.) (MN)

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TAFE

TAFE NATIONAL CENTRE FOR
RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

LOOKING FORWARD: RIGHTS OF PASSAGE

JOHN FOYSTER

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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FOREWORD

The TAFE National Centre for Research and Development was commissioned by the Commonwealth Department of Education to conduct a review of full-time transition education courses. The research was proposed by the November 1982 Conference of TAFE Directors. Between initial proposal and final publication transition education was incorporated in participation and equity programs.

The first part of the report was completed in 1985. It was "Looking back: a review of the TAFE transition education program" by B. Beasley and C. Beasley. This report, entitled "Looking forward: rights of passage" completes the investigation.

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CHAPTER 1: WHERE? THE LOCATION OF THE PROBLEM

BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

In November 1982 the Conference of TAFE Directors proposed a research project with the following terms of reference: for the range of full-time courses in TAFE offered to young people, aged 15-19 years

a) examine on the basis of evaluations and other work already done by TAFE Authorities and under the school-to-work transition program, the evidence as to the ways in which existing courses enhance young people's career and future education opportunities and serve their wider interests;

b) identify the extent to which the range of provision reflects types of student need and to which duplications or deficiencies occur;

c) develop the appropriate bases, components and balance of curricula for the target group or groups and the associated teaching, learning and assessment methods which would

   i) form the basis of a course structure for the development at the local level of initiatives relevant to local vocational needs and circumstances and the personal needs of the individual;

   ii) assist over time in promoting a better understanding in the community of the range of courses in TAFE relevant to the 15-19 year group.(1)

The research work did not begin until early in 1984 and the first report: Looking back: A review of the TAFE transition education program by B. Beasley and C. Beasley was produced early in 1985. This concentrated upon the first of the terms of reference, but also dealt with aspects of sections (b) and (c) in some of its discussions and recommendations. This second document, commissioned in December 1985 and intended for completion early in 1986, focuses on curriculum issues, in particular c(i).

This report should be read in conjunction with the Beasley and Beasley report, to which it is complementary; much of the ground covered there will not be repeated here. However, since it is intended to publish the two reports separately it seems appropriate to begin with extracts from the general Beasley and Beasley recommendations with respect to curriculum issues, and they follow immediately after these introductory remarks. Later in this chapter will be found a more general consideration of the nature of transition education, intended to describe a cultural context within which the curriculum issues can be explored. This will necessitate the broadest interpretation of the preamble to the terms of reference, since the endeavours of TAFE generally will be required to be seen as part of the education program offered to Australians aged between 15 and 19. The chapter concludes with an introduction to the remainder of the report, intended to serve as a guide for the reader seeking specific information.

GENERAL CURRICULUM RECOMMENDATIONS IN LOOKING BACK: A REVIEW OF THE TAFE TRANSITION EDUCATION PROGRAM (Beasley and Beasley)

1. The development of Participation and Equity Program (PEP) policy should be regarded as an extension of transition education and not merely as a renaming of transition courses. It would be inadvisable for PEP courses to be constructed along the same lines as transition education courses. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation, p. 17.)

2. The vocational orientation of TAFE transition education should not be rescinded in any progression towards PEP. Rather the concept of vocationalism needs to be reinterpreted in order to avoid its supply-side and individualistic character.

   Similarly, although aspects of liberal educational philosophy are seen to be of positive benefit to students, for example the student-centred approach, again there is a failure to incorporate collective action as a part of personal/social development.

   A 'socially-critical' orientation which accepts the liberal education concern with social improvement, but sees this as occurring via collective action involving the development of critical thinking not just in individuals but as a part of a group process, might allow useful aspects of both vocational and liberal principles to be incorporated within PEP. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 1, p. 31.)

3. As much as possible, components of real work experience and observation should be developed as significant sections of PEP courses. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 1, p. 37.)

4. Time should be allocated within courses, particularly after work experience or work observation, for discussions concerning the application of work skills and discussions which analyse how this part of the course is related to or reflects aspects of wider social, economic and political structures in society. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 2, p. 37.)

5. In developing a PEP curriculum it would be advisable to include a conscious recognition of the likely personal, cultural, social, economic and familial backgrounds of the majority of enrolling students. It is also important that student backgrounds be viewed positively but, where aspects of their experience have denied them equality in the wider social context, a recognition of this fact should be incorporated in the development of policy and practice in order to promote more equitable opportunities within courses. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 1, p. 52.)

6. It is recommended that this policy and practice should remove any emphasis on personal deficiencies. Instead, there should be an acknowledgement, in practice particularly, of the knowledge, experience and positive personal qualities students bring to courses.

   In addition, individual student skills and talents could be incorporated into courses, perhaps in situations of peer tutoring. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 2, p. 53.)

7. A high priority recommendation would be to include initial and ongoing sessions in any PEP curriculum development which would be aimed at increasing student economic and political literacy. . .

   In addition, it is recommended that students receive extensive information concerning the TAFE PEP program as well as the contents and direction of any specific course. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 3, p. 53.)

8. In order to develop PEP courses which are actively and quickly responsive, rather than reactive, it is advisable that as much as possible collective and individual student participation be included in the content, organisation and direction of any course. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 5, p. 53.)

9. Participation and equity programs should be developed, advertised, implemented, and evaluated in close collaboration with the young people who constitute the target group(s), their families, and the social groups to which they belong. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 1, p. 92.)

10. These programs should seek to raise the awareness of participants, their families and the wider community, of the social factors which contribute to the disadvantages being addressed, of ways in which more equal opportunities of access to courses and careers could be achieved, and of difficulties which are likely to be experienced by participants in these programs; they should seek the understanding and the active involvement of potential students and the social groups to which they belong; and as far as possible, the understanding and involvement of the wider community, particularly employers. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 2, p. 92.)

11. In the development of such a coherent program over time, the following aspects should be considered:

    (a) Given that the target groups are almost certainly lacking in confidence, there is a need for participation and equity programs to encourage a greater sense of self-worth and autonomy.

        (i) The value of segregated groups, integrated groups, or some mixture of these needs to be investigated. Students who are vulnerable or lacking confidence may need forms of sanctuary within programs. In mixed programs, support groups (enclaves) may be essential for many students.

        (ii) Role models (either staff or people from the community invited to participate in the program) should be provided wherever possible.

    (b) Care must be taken to ensure that a program does not overtly or covertly reinforce those social elements which produced (or contributed to) the disadvantage which the program seeks to overcome. Sexist or racist practices and materials, for example, should be eliminated. Genuine collaboration with target groups would probably make it easy to identify these problem areas.

(c) Post-course contact should be maintained and the necessary support provided. A genuine course evaluation of outcomes for participants during and after the course is necessary.

(d) An advisory service capable of mounting the necessary staff development programs and offering ongoing assistance with curriculum development and program evaluation is necessary.

(e) Adequate development, implementation and evaluation of participation and equity programs is very demanding of time and energy. Not only will staff require assistance in the areas of curriculum development and evaluation, they should also have adequate time. Failure to provide adequate time will lead to 'burn out', the subsequent loss of valuable expertise, and considerable personal trauma for individual staff.

(f) The most effective programs are likely to be those in which the students 'select themselves in', because they see the program as relevant to their needs rather than programs which are designed by 'experts' who are solely responsible for the selection of students. This is not intended to diminish the value of 'expertise', but rather to suggest that expertise achieves the most powerful results when made available to people to use in what they judge to be their best interest.

(i) A related challenge is to be able to respond flexibly to the needs of students when a course is actually under way.

(ii) The objective is the development of a curriculum which has an essential framework derived from the expertise and the previous experience of the program co-ordinators and teachers, but which is modified as a result of 'negotiation' with students in order better to meet their needs and aspirations. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 7, pp. 93-4.)

12. Clear and concrete statements of course objectives and strategies, anticipated outcomes and selection criteria should be produced and be made available to all interested persons by way of the local CES offices, and other means judged most appropriate for the particular target group. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 2, p. 127.)

13. The nature of the full range of local secondary and post-secondary courses should be examined with the object of producing an integrated network of study options of varying degrees of complexity, and with varying skill and knowledge requirements. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 3, p. 127.)

14. A mechanism should be devised whereby those potential students attracted by the information circulated about these programs are able to discuss and see at first hand the nature of available courses and be able to negotiate about which course they may enter within the network of courses. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 4, p. 127.)

15. Sufficient flexibility should exist in curriculum development for the mounting of a course(s) which responds to student needs at the point of enrolment when existing courses are inappropriate to those needs. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 5, p. 127.)

16. That guideline statements should recognise the necessity of community consultation at all times in the development of participation and equity curricula. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 1, p. 141.)

17. A system of accumulating credits for different levels of participation could be developed which has legitimacy both within TAFE and in the wider community. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 1, p. 147.)

18. All PEP courses should include a closing-down phase which would investigate future possibilities for students, provide detailed information concerning these options, and an undertaking that the college would provide and mail a regular (every six months) updated list of students' names, addresses, and contact phone numbers. It would be the student's responsibility to inform the college of any change to this list. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 2, p. 148.)

19. Each PEP course should employ an ex-student(s) in either full-time or sessional capacity as often as possible.

20. Part of the time allocation in every course should include a specific recognition of the time required for evaluation, with those prepared to undertake formative evaluation receiving sufficient time to carry out this activity without undue stress. (Beasley and Beasley, recommendation 13, p. 161.)

In addition to these twenty recommendations, Beasley and Beasley provide an extended statement (11) on the characteristics of an 'ideal-type' of curriculum development. Issues raised there, as well as those in the twenty recommendations reprinted above, will be taken up in the course of this report.

TRANSITION

Particular attempts to improve the education of those in the age range 15-19 years must be regarded as, if not ephemeral, at least of limited lifetime. Beasley and Beasley noted (12) the advent of PEP subsequent to the drafting of the terms of reference for this research program. The Priority One traineeship scheme has been announced subsequent to the production of Looking back. Because of this evolution of efforts at reducing the magnitude of youth unemployment problems, any investigation allying itself exclusively with a particular program will be of limited use. Accordingly this study will seek a broader canvas, attempting to characterise the context of transition education and dealing with particular programs only as exemplars of what was done at a particular point in time by a particular group. There will always be unemployed youth, and there will always be teachers working with those young people: the name given to such social activities, the funding made available, and the strategies used will change but the problems (and for that matter in many cases the teachers) will not change. This report seeks to deal with the unvarying issues rather than those which may be in fashion for a time. And so we begin by considering transition in the broad sense.

The limitation of the study to years 15-19 itself implies a narrow focus: the Coleman Panel on Youth (Youth: transition to adulthood) took the years 14-24 as appropriate and indeed in Australia, as has been pointed out by Abrahart (13), the period of transition is even longer. The earliest State intervention is at age 6, when a child must be enrolled at school, while the State continues to consider a young person dependent upon her/his family, for the purpose of education allowances, up to the age of 25. For these two decades, then, young Australians may be considered to be somewhere in a state of transition between that of being wholly dependent upon the immediate family and being wholly independent. The years 15-19, somewhere in the middle of this range, are very important, but this importance frequently derives from what has gone before or what is to come. We may focus upon the problems of years 15-19, but their resolution may come from a broader investigation. The transition from school to work, it is emphasised, is but one of many transitions which adolescents undergo.

Merely to investigate education systems, even for the extended age range, will scarcely be adequate when schooling is but one of the components of modern society which has effects upon young Australians. But a broad social analysis is not appropriate here, so all that will be done is to attempt to see where the focus of interest - education/schooling - is situated within the range of influences upon youth.

This means looking at education from outside, and considering schooling as a modern rite of passage. Rites of passage (van Gennep (14)) are often thought of only in relation to traditional societies, and with a standard pattern of separation, transition, and incorporation. Yet those elements appear clearly in the already-cited reference in Abrahart; the vulnerability of individuals during the period of transition (Dumont (15)) in the anthropological sense is reflected in the educational system in the extensive studies of the risks to youth during transition.

Why are individuals willing to undergo initiatory rites? There may be no choice. Or if there is a choice the benefits are clear. Generally the child seeks to 'grow up' so that transition becomes an expected if at times painful thing: all around the child are humans who have managed the transition to adulthood. But in traditional societies, as Dumont points out (16) **rites de passage** 'regulate the flow of time into series of stable states, like stretches of water connected by ritual lock-gates'. In such circumstances it is easy to understand or explain participation in initiation or even, as Michael S. Katz writes, in education systems: 'The view that education is the moral right to be prepared for social and economic independence is especially compatible with culturally homogeneous societies with stable adult roles'. (17)

But in a society like ours, how can one understand why children would choose to make the transition to adulthood for, as Peter Marin rather dramatically puts it, 'Adolescents are, literally - each one of them - an arena in which the culture transforms itself or is torn between contrary impulses; they are the victims of a culture raging within itself like man and wife, a schizoid culture - and these children are the unfinished and grotesque products of that schism'? (18)

What is it about our culture that creates these tensions? Among suggested causes, for example, is the fact that our society requires that during the transition period there be modifictions in recreational, vocational, sexual, social, and political behaviours. (19)

For example, our society expects transition to occur over a very extended period of time (dealt with above), which 'prolongs the indeterminateness of forms of thought, the ability to dream the world and live with unreal ideas' (20); which gives young people ample time to see that the world they hear glorified by adults is somewhat less perfect - that poverty, inequality, corruption, war, despotism, and hypocrisy are widespread (21); which gives them time to see that 'School is bad, work is worse' (22) and the very great differences between school and work (e.g.23); which gives them time to learn that the skills they are being taught at school are not likely to be used on the job (24) and, in any case, who knows what the relationship will be between skills and jobs? (25); which gives them more time to see that attitudes or behaviours which are discouraged at school may be useful on the job (cheating at school may be very similar to productive co-operation on the job) (26); which gives them more time to adopt their peers as role models, rather than adults. (27)

This is not an exhaustive list, of course, but it may serve to indicate why, from time to time, all those in transition from childhood to adulthood have some difficulties and why some of them choose to remain as dependents.

But society also has a stake in easing the transition. As Coleman remarks: 'Every society must somehow solve the problem of transforming children into adults, for its very survival depends on that solution. In every society there is established some kind of institutional setting within which the process of transition is to occur in directions predicated by societal goals and values.' (28)

In our society schooling, or education, is that institutional setting. In the next section that role, and the limitations which must be set upon it, will be explored.

EDUCATION

The preceding section has hinted at an opposition of interests between the individual and society. But, in 'reality, society and the individual are not antagonists. His culture provides the raw material of which the individual makes his life. If it is meagre, the individual suffers; if it is rich the individual has the chance to rise to his opportunity. Every private interest of every man and woman is served by the enrichment of the traditional stores of his civilization.' (Ruth Benedict) (29)

How to bring this to reality is the task of us all and the particular delegated responsibility of every teacher in our society. As it is a curriculum issue it will be dealt with at length later. But the philosophical framework within which the problem can be worked out is introduced now. Just how the curriculum problem is to be approached is significant. It is not necessary to believe that one particular curriculum ideology is correct, or that one can be completely correct, in order to accept that one ideology may be more fruitful than others when we come to grapple with the problem of the relationship between society and the individual. The remainder of this section sets out an ideology which can be considered in this context.

Elliot Eisner (30) presents five curriculum orientations which indicate the range from which a choice may be made. By considering the utility of these in dealing with the society/individual relationship which has been identified above as critical to our understanding of transition as an anthropological/educational phenomenon we will make progress towards our goal.

The **development of cognitive processes** orientation sees the functions of the school to be 'to help children learn how to learn' and 'to provide them with the opportunities to use and strengthen the variety of intellectual faculties that they possess.' (31) In the **academic rationalism** orientation the school's major function is 'to foster the intellectual growth of the student in those subject matters most worthy of study.' (32) The **personal relevance** orientation is one which 'emphasizes the primacy of personal meaning and the school's responsibility to develop programs that make such meaning possible.'(33)

The **social adaptation/social reconstruction** orientation is one in which the school's mission 'is to locate social needs, or at least be sensitive to those needs, and to provide the kinds of programs that are relevant for meeting the needs that have been identified.' (34) The fifth orientation, that labelled by Eisner as the **curriculum as technology** orientation is essentially bureaucratic - 'a means of relating means to ends once the ends have been formulated.' (35).

It will be clear that firstly, the approach which at first glance appears likely to be most fruitful in dealing with the problem which has been identified is the social reconstruction orientation, and that secondly the series of recommendations reprinted above from Beasley and Beasley makes use of most or all

of these orientations. It is clear that the Beasley and Beasley report, prepared as a review, is essentially atheoretic, as was appropriate. This report on the other hand is intended to reflect some of the power which can be gained from theory in dealing with specific problems. Extended discussion of the relation of the various Beasley and Beasley recommendations to curriculum models is to be found - for obvious reasons - in the chapters titled 'What?' and 'How?'.

At this point, however, in order to strengthen the theory which will be used in the remainder of this analysis, it is necessary to devote some time to the social reconstruction model and its relationships with the other orientations which have only been outlined above. In setting out more detail than has been thus far given it should become clear just how transition problems may be solved in a very general way. Questions related to TAFE transition programs are embedded in general questions about transition at ages 15-19, and these in turn are embedded in questions about schooling as a transition process. To investigate these broader issues may not have the immediacy of impact of a document which started off by solving a few (or many) bread and butter issues, but the approach being taken here will allow these daily problems to be seen in perspective.

The representation for the social reconstruction orientation which has been chosen is that of George S. Counts in Dare the school build a new social order? (36) During the 1920s and 1930s Counts carried out an extensive program of research and publication intended to put progressive education back on the rails. Dare the school build a new social order? is a pamphlet in which are collected three speeches given during 1932 originally titled (and this will give some flavour of what is to follow) 'Dare progressive education be progressive?', 'Education through indoctrination' and 'Freedom, culture, social planning, and leadership'.

The core of Counts' thesis is 'that all education contains a large element of imposition, that in the very nature of the case this is inevitable, that the existence and evolution of society depend upon it, that it is consequently eminently desirable, and that the frank acceptance of this fact by the educator is a major professional obligation...failure to do this involves the clothing of one's own deepest prejudices in the garb of universal truth...'. (37) (Of course, for Counts as for later theoreticians, 'on all genuinely crucial matters the school follows the wishes of the groups or classes that actually rule society; on minor matters the school is sometimes allowed a certain measure of freedom'. (38))

Counts goes on to set out the main idea of his version of social reconstruction by dealing with nine curricular fallacies. Many of these fallacies lie close to the centre of alternative curriculum orientations of the kind described above. In exploring curriculum, however, we need to recall that we are currently dealing with curriculum at the level of grand theory, and Counts is dealing with the attempts of other models to operate at that level: different orientations are useful at different stages, so that the fact that Counts rejects the child-centred model in this context does not mean that orientation does not have its uses in particular circumstances, and indeed it will so be used in the appropriate chapter of the present report.

A social reconstructionist orientation towards curriculum takes the view that

- freedom exists in a cultural relationship, not in isolation;
- individuals and society are made good by human endeavour;
- children are part of human society, not separate from it;
- education exists within society and its politics;
- schooling is selective of experience, and that selection should be overt;
- education is for action, not inaction;
- schools should have social goals but the school as a relatively weak agency for change should be sure to oppose social reaction;
- schooling should not be unplanned, and schools must also be prepared to be responsible for their acts;
- in preparing children for life in a changing society schools should avoid encouraging a flexibility which is unthinking.

Thus for Counts the essential question is not whether values and ideas are imposed on children but the source of the imposition.

The purpose of this report is to deal also with the nature and source of imposition upon young Australians. In Chapter 2, 'Who?', the nature of the young Australians is considered briefly, with special emphasis upon those closely identified with TAFE transition activities. In Chapter 3, 'What?', the question of what should be imposed is dealt with, and this will take up many of the issues raised in this chapter - especially recommendations made in the Beasley and Beasley report.

Chapter 4, 'How?', deals with the detail of curriculum imposition, picking up those recommendations not already covered.

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Chapter 2 WHO? LEAVING SCHOOL EARLY IN AUSTRALIA

Although the process of schooling may alternatively be viewed, as it has in the first chapter, as a process of transition from one status in society to another, it remains the case that society treats differently various subgroups; not all undergoing transition have had the same support, in terms of facilities or finance, devoted to their coming to adulthood and this process of disproportionate support may reasonably be called inequity. To see who participates in the process of transition we have also to ask who receives greater support from society and who receives less. We may also ask whether or not disproportionate support is a matter of policy or accident, and to what extent support-in-practice matches the beliefs and desires of the society.

Trevor Williams and others (1,2,3) at the Australian Council for Educational Research have been engaged for a long time in studying the patterns of participation in schooling. Figures prepared in 1985 cast considerable light on the characteristics of those who participate in later years of education at different rates.

It is very much a commonplace that Australian educational systems,or at least those dealing with secondary education-in-practice, orientate themselves towards what has been called the 'competitive academic curriculum'. (4) The result is that, in essence, the greatest resources go towards the preparation of those who will undertake further study at a tertiary institution, and most particularly, those who will do so at a university.

However less than half of all adolescents reach the end of secondary schooling (complete Year 12), and a much smaller fraction actually continues on to academic studies. Since there is little effort to change this situation it may reasonably be assumed that society is satisfied with its achievements in this sector. Presumably the participants in tertiary education are also satisfied with the outcome; they feel themselves to be satisfactorily initiated into adult life. Our concern for the remainder of this chapter, for this among other reasons, is therefore largely with those who do not receive that generous support.

Williams (5) deals with a sample somewhat distant in the past (those completing secondary schooling in 1976-1980) but the findings are structural rather than absolute, although there are some figures which merit further discussion. The question initially to be considered is, who participates in post-compulsory education? and the paper explores the effects of variables such as socio-economic background, ethnicity, rurality, gender, school system and achievement to investigate which of these factors influence completion of secondary schooling and to what extent.

The factors clearly interfere with one another, so Williams uses a technique which allows him to look at the effects of each variable in turn, holding the others constant. The outcomes were as follows:

FACTORS INFLUENCING COMPLETION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLING

Father's occupation is a significant influence upon the likelihood of completing Year 12. In raw terms, for example, 64% of those with fathers classified as Professional will complete Year 12, while 32% of those with fathers classified as Semi-skilled will complete Year 12. When other factors are controlled this disproportion is somewhat reduced, but it is still strong.

School system (Government, Catholic, or Independent) attended at age 14 is also a significant influence (29% completion for Government school, 44% for Catholic schools and 88% for Independent schools are the raw figures). By removing the effects of other factors these differences are reduced, but the disadvantage for attendance at Government schools (especially with respect to Independent schools) remains.

Achievement at age 14 is a strong influence. This may not be surprising, since we would expect that the schooling system would serve best those who have already shown that they are benefiting from it. But here we must interpolate a question for the reader. Consider the students who perform best on the achievement measures at age 14 (standardised tests of literacy and numeracy), say, the top 25% of all students. What proportion of those students would you expect to complete Year 12? There might be many different arguments about what should happen, but the result reported by Williams(6) is that 67% of them complete Year 12, compared with 10% of those in the bottom 25%. There is inequity here, but there is also a supplementary question which should be posed: Is it satisfactory that one-third of the best-performing students <u>do not</u> complete secondary schooling? Nevertheless, to keep this issue in perspective, we should note that if one wants to select a student who will complete Year 12, it is a better

procedure to choose at random a 14 year old at an independent school than a 14-year-old who is in the top quarter in the State on standardised tests.

Family wealth, another aspect of socio-economic background, is significant as an effect only when other factors are uncontrolled. By itself family wealth is not a significant factor.

Ethnicity, defined coarsely as being neither Australian-nor English-born, is a small influence. When all other factors are controlled about 38% of those with an other-than-Australian/English background will complete Year 12, as against 35% of those with an Australian/English background. These figures are the same when other factors are uncontrolled, implying that this effect is independent of the others.

Gender was not a significant factor.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PARTICIPATION IN POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION

The second stage of the work of Williams and others (1,2) was to consider those from their sample who entered post-secondary education in 1979-1983. Of the 2872 students, 1003 completed secondary education and of these 826 entered post-secondary education during the study period. Of the 1869 early leavers, 791 entered post-secondary education during 1979-1983.

So far as entering post-secondary education was concerned, although there are obviously different participation rates depending upon whether or not the adolescent completed secondary education, the factors which most affected entry to post-secondary education were collectively the same, but not always in the same way as those affecting completion of secondary schooling!

Father's occupation is no longer the strong influence it was on completion of secondary schooling; when it comes to determining the likelihood of entering post-secondary education father's occupation (considered in isolation) is of negligible effect except that among early school leavers having a father whose occupation is classified as 'professional' does increase the likelihood of entering post-secondary education.

Family wealth, by itself relatively unimportant in influencing the completion of secondary schooling, becomes very important when considering the likelihood of an adolescent entering into post-secondary eduction is concerned; those from wealthier families are more likely to enter post-secondary education.

Ethnicity has an effect on post-secondary education to that which it has on completion of secondary schooling; to be neither Australian- nor English-born increases one's chances of entering post-secondary education.

Rurality is a significant factor in determining the likelihood of entering post-secondary education; to be among the most 'rural' quarter of the population is a significant disadvantage whether an adolescent is an early school leaver or not. This factor is independent of the others.

School system is a factor of minor importance, and is in the reverse direction to that encountered in considering completion of secondary education: i.e. the effect which exists favours those from the State system as against those from the independent system.

Gender was not a significant factor with respect to completion of secondary school, but males are far more likely to enter post-secondary education than are females, independent of other factors; the sex-difference is greater for early school leavers.

Achievement at age 14 is a significant effect in determining post-secondary education participation, as we might expect; the effect is greater, and independent of other factors, for early school leavers.

The results of these investigations are highlighted below.

Classification of adolescent	Individual effects
Father's occupation of high status	More likely to complete secondary schooling; some benefit to early school leaver in post-secondary entrance if father in 'professional' class
High family wealth	Relatively unimportant so far as completing school is concerned; more likely to enter post-secondary education, especially by comparison with other early school leavers
Neither Australian- nor English-born	More likely to complete secondary schooling and more likely to enter post-secondary education
City-dweller	More likely to enter post-secondary education
Independent school	More likely to complete secondary schooling, but less likely to enter post-secondary education
Male	More likely to enter post-secondary education
High performance on standardised literacy, numeracy tests at age 14	More likely to complete secondary education, more likely to enter post-secondary education

It must be emphasised that these factors are usually found in combination, and this table refers only to the situation when other factors are controlled. For example, an adolescent whose father has a high status occupation is more likely to enter post-secondary education, but this is linked to the associated family wealth rather than the father's occupation in isolation. It should also be noted that the gender and ethnicity effects are not bound up with the others, and appear to be independent effects.

In addition, as Williams points out (2), since TAFE would be expected to absorb a large proportion of the early leavers who later enter post-secondary education any effects mentioned above which relate to early school leavers have especial relevance for the TAFE sector, whether through transition programs or trade courses.

This is the general picture regarding the likely background of those in transition. Anderson and Blakers (6) and Anderson and Vervoorn (7) provide further extensive historical data which support the general picture.

As indicated at the beginning of the chapter the prime concern here is with those who do not receive extended support from society for their transition from childhood to adolescence. This next section deals with various pieces of research into the backgrounds of those participating in TAFE transition education programs.

Davis and Woodburne (8) conducted an evaluation across the various Australian States of the School To Work Program, dealing with the 1981 intake. They found a pattern of early school leaving as follows.

Table 1

Grade on leaving school	Percentage
9	16.4
10	56.9
11	16.8
12	9.9 (12)

(The Davis and Woodburne study reported results separately for each of the given programs they examined. For simplicity their results have been combined, concealing some inter-program differences. These results, determined as they are by the various weightings applying to the original study, nevertheless appear to be consistent with the later investigations reported below.)

The participants' beliefs about why they were in the program, the benefits of the program, are also reported by Davis and Woodburne. (8)

Table 2

Benefit	Percentage
Help getting a job	43.4
Acquire social skills	18.6
Acquire work skills	11.8
Improve literacy/numeracy/general education	10.7
Access to other courses	7.5
Acquire new interests	4.5
Other	3.6

More recently, Richetti has reported (9,10) on the results of 1983 and 1985 surveys of participants in Victorian Transition Education (TAFE/PEP) programs. While there are some difficulties in making comparisons between years, it is instructive to consider what appeared to change and what did not appear to change.

The following summary gives the main results of Richetti's study: tables giving details are to be found in Appendix A.

1. The proportion of participants with English-speaking backgrounds decreased from around 92% in 1983 to around 86% in 1985, while the proportion with a Middle-Eastern or Asian background rose from around 3% to around 8%. (Appendix A, Table 1)

2. It appears that there has been in this period a shift towards lower status for father's occupation which is statistically significant and is also likely to have practical consequences. (A-2)

3. Between 1983 and 1985 the proportion of participants describing the school last attended as 'technical' dropped from over one-third to less than one-quarter. (A-3)

4. The level of schooling attained remained more or less constant, with about three-quarters of participants leaving school after completing Year 9, 10 or 11, although there is an increase in the proportion completing secondary schooling. (A-4)

5. Participants were asked why they had left school and the responses were coded into 17 categories. The two major reasons given were that the participants had left to find a job (as distinct from leaving to go to a specific job) or had left because they hated or disliked school. There is some discussion in the appendix of the difficulties of interpreting these data (the coding of responses may have varied between the two reports), but in the period there appears to have been a decrease in the proportions citing conflict at school, a need for money, or a lack of perceived value of schooling as a reason for leaving. However, the proportion of responses classified as 'other' is alarmingly large for the 1985 survey. (A-5)

6. The sources of information about the program have remained stable, with about half the participants citing the CES as the source. (A-6)

7. The reasons cited for joining the program appear to have shown a shift away from deficit objectives (such as boredom, nothing to do, lonely) towards educational, employment, and personal development objectives, which in 1985 accounted for three-quarters of the responses. (A-7)

8. Cross tabulations show some connexions between year of schooling attained, reasons for leaving school and reasons for joining the program. (A-8, 9, 10, 11)

It seems an inescapable conclusion that in this section of the Victorian transition education program substantial changes in the backgrounds and interests of participants took place in just two years. There is no particular reason to believe that this pattern of change would not be found across other sectors of transition education.

Indeed although there is some risk in making a comparison over so great a distance in time and between different methodologies, Richetti's results could be seen to be a development from those reported by Davis and Woodburne in Tables 1 and 2 above. Students are leaving school later and their reasons for taking transition courses are moving away from employment motives.

Beasley and Beasley (11), in their summary of studies of transition education programs within TAFE, report extensively on participants' attitudes towards schooling and their reasons for enrolling in programs.

With respect to schooling, participants felt that credentials they had received were not accurate or useful. They had consistently failed tests and assignments, failed to complete projects, received reports which highlighted their deficiencies and had their own talents ignored. They had been streamed, and felt they had inadequate backgrounds in mathematics and English. They saw school as an infantilising institution and as being isolated from the world. They felt they had received little personal attention in class, even though they had requested it and had, indeed, been objects of abuse from both teachers and other students.

They had enrolled in transition programs for the following reasons in order of importance:

- for assistance in the job market,
- to meet others and participate in group activities,
- to bring structure into their lives and reduce boredom and frustration,
- to be perceived as <u>doing</u> something.

In a very general way these reasons for enrolling might be seen to fit with the more precise details in Richetti's study. Yet one cannot help but feel that the evolution reported in Richetti's two studies, especially beyond the results of Davis and Woodburne, makes the reasons identified by Beasley and Beasley less specific and possibly dated.

There is, of course, great variation in background variables for different kinds of courses. For example, Putt (12) reports on the opinions of 1980 participants in pre-apprenticeship courses in New South Wales on their reasons for enrolling, with the following results.

Table 3

Reasons for enrolling	Percentage
To obtain apprenticeship	26.9
Always been interested in trade	20.9
Couldn't get a job	12.9
To learn useful skills	12.8
Encouraged by parents	8.6
To see if I liked trade	7.2
Transition between school and work	6.8
Encouraged by employer	2.6

(These figures have been adjusted in a way similar to that used for Richetti's figures where multiple responses have been given.)

These contrast strongly with Barton's results (13) for a similar question used with 16 Vietnamese participants in a small program.

Here the major reason was to improve English (63%), with 37% giving equal weight to: improving English and maths in preparation for a course, improving English and information about Australia, and to knowing how to apply for a job.

The examples quoted are intended to show that figures which apply generally may remain stable, or show meaningful trends, but that variation from course to course is immense. It is therefore dangerous to extrapolate from one individual's experience to the program as a whole.

Finally in this chapter we consider the beliefs of students as they are about to leave school. We have seen in some detail who it is that leaves school early, but why do they do it? And are the results reported by Richetti generalisable from Victoria to Australia? We again rely upon studies carried out at the Australian Council for Educational Research, on this occasion dealing with student views in 1983.

One study (14) dealt with about 8000 Year 10 students and 6500 Year 11 students, Australia-wide. A second study (15) dealt with much smaller numbers of students (about 900 Year 10 and 700 Year 12) in Victoria. Their views on reasons for staying at school, or leaving school, are reported here to show the consistency between Victorian and Australian figures (and therefore the likely generalisability of Richetti's survey results) and the very different ways in which those staying and leaving see various factors.

For those in Year 10 who were planning to leave before completing secondary schooling the most important reasons for leaving were related to the job market (e.g. I will have a job to go to, I hope to get a job, I intend to start an apprenticeship, I want to earn my own money). Next in importance were factors related to what the researchers describe as 'utility' (I will have enough education for what I want to do, I could not do subjects that would be useful to me, I think it is better to get onto the job market).

Dissatisfaction with school was next in importance (school work is not interesting, I do not enjoy school, I am not doing well enough at school), and least important of all was the advice of parents, teachers and friends.

(The order of these groupings is the same for the two studies, and indeed the Kendall's tau co-efficient for the compared rankings of individual statements within the two studies is a statistically significant 0.87.)

The analysis of reasons for staying at school is much more complex. For the Australia-wide study this question was put to Year 10 students who intended to leave at the end of Year 11 and those who intended to complete Year 12, to Year 11 students who had planned to return for that year and to Year 11 students who had not planned to be at school that year. In the Victorian study similar questions were put to Year 10 and Year 12 students (but not those relating to the job market).

For all six groups the most important reasons for staying at school related to 'utility' (I need to complete Year 11 or Year 12 for my future career, I can do subjects that are useful to me, another year at school could help me to get a job). Job market considerations (I cannot find a job, I cannot get an apprenticeship, I have no other plans) were next in importance for those who planned to leave early, but least in importance for those who planned to complete their present programs. Advice from others, except for parental advice, tended to be the least important factor, while satisfaction with school (I find school work interesting, I am enjoying school, I am doing well in my school work) took second place with those planning to continue but third place with those planning to leave.

The consistency between the Victorian and Australian patterns is substantial, and the results hold together as a whole: those planning to leave school early place more emphasis on job-market cnsiderations, but those staying beyond Year 10, or intending to do so, look at 'utility' questions more than job market questions. School satisfaction or dissatisfaction and advice from others are less influential factors for all groups (but parental advice is more important among those who stay at school).

SUMMARY

Those who leave school early, and therefore fall outside the mainstream of societal support for transition, have been described in terms of both external measurable characteristics and their own beliefs about themselves. The next question to be addressed is, what should be the nature of the support given to them within a particular educational framework?

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CHAPTER 3: WHAT? CURRICULUM CRITICISM FOR PRACTITIONERS

The chapter titled 'Where?' introduced curriculum ideology as a concept to be studied in this report; it set out five different curriculum orientations and indicated one - social reconstruction - which it was believed was more likely to be fruitful in addressing the issues which arise in the development of transition education.

In this chapter the ideas advanced earlier will be developed further; a framework for the examination of curriculum will be produced, and the framework will then be used to consider several examples of curriculum, as well as the recommendations for curriculum already reported. In the next and final chapter this framework will be used to provide guidelines for curriculum development and practice which will be appropriate for transition education.

One preliminary notion should be considered first. The locus of operation (from central through to peripheral) at which curriculum action takes place affects the kinds of curriculum processes which may appropriately be used. The easiest distinction to make is that between curriculum strategies and curriculum tactics. Strategies tend to be global, long-term and centrally-determined, while tactics are specific, 'what do I do on Monday?' in urgency, and locally-managed. Such a simplified picture may be useful to contemplate, but in practice the tensions between central and peripheral agents which arise in managing the balance between strategy and tactics can become unbearable. At one extreme, 'teacher-proof' textbooks form one manifestation of this tension, and the most appropriate view is to assume that teachers will always believe that strategic decisions would be more relevant if they made them while central managers would prefer teachers to bow to <u>their</u> will. This tension should be borne in mind throughout the chapter, but it will not be referred to again.

The framework for curriculum criticism is here considered to hang upon four questions and the answers to those questions. The next few pages are given over to an elaboration of detail, some of which is required for the exemplar criticism with which this chapter concludes.

What is the purpose of education?

In what terms do we value (educational) experience?

What may be manipulated in order to achieve desired ends in education?

How do we communicate to others about the nature of educational experience?

In curriculum terms, it may seem that the third question is the one which is of immediate concern. But it is precisely because of this filtering that significant events are overlooked and legitimate concern about hidden curriculum is voiced.

Questions concerning the purposes of educational activities may be unvoiced, but we may be sure that assumptions about the answers underpin many 'curriculum' decisions. To consider more fundamental questions will usually lead to a better understanding of the context of the curriculum activity.

Questions about value may be asked either before or after the curriculum has been shaped; but, in the first instance, there seem to be prudent reasons for asking, when working in a social context, what range of criteria the different components of society are going to use in valuing curriculum activities, rather than discovering those values only in a combative arena after the curriculum activities have taken place.

Finally, curriculum activities may be represented to outsiders in various ways and the choice of mode of representation is crucial to social acceptance of these at the appropriate level. To ignore the possibility of variation is to abdicate the responsibility for fairness.

The purposes of education

A range of answers to this question has already been supplied. In the chapter 'Where?' five curriculum 'orientations' were described, with the intention of bringing to the reader's attention one orientation which, it is believed, is particularly appropriate in considering transition education. To aid the reader's recollection these are epitomised below.

The 'cognitive processes' orientation implies that the purpose of education is to develop the intellectual or cognitive faculties which the learner already has.

The 'academic rationalism' orientation implies that the purpose of education is to develop the learner's intellectual growth in particular areas which are defined by wise adults as being worthy of study.

The 'personal relevance' orientation implies that the purpose of education is to produce programmes based on personal meaning for individuals.

The 'social reconstruction' orientation implies that the purpose of education is to prepare citizens who will endeavour to change the world in ways defined to be desirable by wise adults.

The 'curriculum as technology' orientation implies that the primary purpose of education is to do efficiently whatever is being done. Although practitioners have varying philosophies, these do not affect curriculum structures overtly.

As indicated earlier, any educational programme in practice brings together elements of each of these orientations, not least because those participating in the education programme may hold strongly to one particular orientation - but it is not the same one for every person. It has also been indicated that in terms of the stated goals of the educational programmes, readers of this document operate within the 'social reconstruction' orientation which seems most nearly, of the five, to match proclaimed goals.

Values within education

Whatever composition of orientations towards the purposes of education one may have, the question of what value system underlies that construction is a semi-open one; that is to say, while particular orientations may be associated with particular value systems to some extent, the relationship is not a deterministic one - a given composition of orientations may be found in association with various value systems. This is better seen after an enumeration of a range of value systems.

One recent classification which is being used with increasing frequency in educational circles is that of Dwayne Huebner (1), who identifies five different value systems. The following paragraphs briefly outline these.

A technical value system, which is concerned that desired ends be met efficiently, might be thought, at first sight, to match closely - if not identically - the curriculum as technology orientation which has just been described. While it is certainly true that this value system is linked with that orientation, the link is not so close as first appears; it is the dominance of this combination as an ideology which provides the link as much as anything, for this value system uses the languages of psychology and sociology to legitimise itself. Thus other orientations may often be found in association with this particular value system.

A political value system, concerned with the power relationships within an educational community, particularly involving children, parents, and teachers, and often more concerned with covert actions and beliefs than overt ones, may be associated with any of the suggested orientations.

A scientific value system, which is concerned with the understanding of educational systems at an empirical level, is not often found but may, again, be associated with any of the defined orientations.

An aesthetic value system, concerning itself with the psychic and aesthetic effects of educational activity upon participants - especially perhaps in terms of symbolic meanings - though relatively neglected, may still be found in association with several of the orientations, as may an ethical value system concerned with the moral quality of educational activities.

When educational activities are being valued, it is argued here, some combination of these value systems is brought to bear.

No one classification of value systems exists as a canonical definition, and it is by no means certain that the structure proposed by Huebner is superior to Max Weber's earlier (2) organisation of the types of social action as zweckrational - means in relation to particular ends; wertrational - related to absolute ends, whether aesthetic, religious, ethical, or otherwise; affecktuell - relating to the feelings, especially the emotions, of the participants; and traditional - those of habit. The same dilemma - whether any classification is exhaustive yet well-defined enough to be used in practice - exists for each of the four proposed questions, but those who seek to understand curriculum have little choice but to make use of the tool or tools which seem to lead to clarity.

(An appendix to this chapter expands somewhat the description of orientations and value systems.)

The agents of curriculum

Joseph Schwab (3) identifies four commonplaces of education which may be manipulated in the development of curriculum: the learner, the teacher, the milieu, and the subject matter. Each of these commonplaces is itself a generalisation for a range of possible actors: for example, the 'teachers' may be either elders or peers, they may be specialists or generalists, and so on, with different implications (in curriculum terms) for the different subgroups. But it is 'subject matter' - that which it is easy to see as the whole of curriculum, when at best it may constitute a syllabus of instruction - which provokes the greatest debate, probably precisely because it is, by habit, the focus of curriculum intervention by tradition-bound individuals or groups.

No one classification of subject matter is likely to serve all purposes, but the following may prove adequate. It combines the system of Phenix (4) with more recent discussions in Eisner (5).

One difference between the two systems is that Phenix insists that his consideration of subject matter be limited to the 'scholarly disciplines', so that the more recent system provides a broader coverage.

Three classes are shared by the systems - symbolics or formal knowledge (language, mathematics, and other symbol systems), empirics (the physical and social sciences), and aesthetics (in music, art, movement and literature).

Thereafter the systems diverge. Phenix identifies as significant synnoetics (personal, concrete, and existential knowledge), ethics or moral knowledge, and synoptics (history, religion, philosophy).

The classification provided in the Eisner volume adds the following four categories (obviously with some overlap): interpersonal or social knowledge, intuition, spiritual knowledge, and practical knowledge.

So cumbersome a list is probably as nearly exhaustive as we need for practical purposes, though this is not to say that an extension is impossible. For more detail, the reader is directed to the two references.

It is possible to offer an alternative to Schwab's set of agents, however, based upon the relationships between his actors.

In such a model of manipulable objects a first object might be the relationship between teacher and students. Such a relationship is clearly influenced by the answers chosen to the two prior questions.

The second object for manipulation might be the relationship between student and the subject matter. Indeed, questions of learning theory and development of children are raised precisely by consideration of this relationship.

Next, one might take the relationship between teacher and social milieu: different forms - for example, movement to and from the outside community - might be established which would change curriculum outcomes in dramatic ways.

Fourth and last, one might take the relationship between subject matter and social milieu. Certainly, so far as newspapers seem to be concerned, this is one of the most important objects for manipulation.

It should be clear from this alternative enumeration that an understanding of the ways in which curriculum may be manipulated follows only upon the most general of considerations; if we take Schwab's four agents as the basis of our understanding then we need also to consider the relationships between those agents as objects which are available for manipulation. This may be no more than to say that the agents cannot be manipulated in isolation, but it needs to be said to guard against significant omissions.

The representation of curriculum

Participants in curriculum activities communicate about those activities either directly or indirectly. When that representation is formalised, as a curriculum statement, the mode of representation becomes a serious issue to those who seek to understand curriculum, for the choice of a particular mode of representation influences both what the participants seek to communicate and what the outsiders seek to learn.

One mode of representation is so dominant that it is, so it seems, accepted not merely as the mode of representation but even as something it is not - a rationale. It is this dominance - so great that it pre-empts the asking of significant questions about curriculum - of the Tyler representation (6) which makes it necessary to describe three other modes of representation in some detail.

The Tyler representation will, however, be described by way of introduction so that its contrast with other representations may be seen more clearly.

The Tyler representation consists of four questions and their answers: What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? (State the educational goals of the programme.)

How can learning experiences be selected which are likely to be useful in attaining these goals? (List the educational objectives in detail.)

How can learning experiences be organised into effective instruction? (Arrange the learning experiences according to some rational plan which depends upon external factors.)

How can the effectiveness of learning experiences be evaluated? (That is, formal evaluation is an essential part of curriculum practice.)

This representation, allied with 'no-nonsense' (i.e. technical) answers to the three earlier questions, constitutes the dominant ideology in curriculum thinking. It is true that there are substantial curriculum endeavours which are based upon different orientations or value systems, but their variation from the dominant model is limited in many cases by the retention of the Tyler representation. Nor should it be thought that to deviate from the Tyler line is radically adventurous; for example, it is difficult to incorporate within the Tyler representation the five views of fulfilment of meaning advanced by Phenix (7) - mastery, belongingness, many-sidedness, integrity, and quality.

Three other representations are presented below, since these may prove more useful in particular cases: these are the problem-solving representation, the expressive representation, and the action-research representation.

The problem-solving representation is particularly appropriate, if present usage is any indicator, in areas which require a combination of vocational and general education. The components are a problem (an issue which is 'unsettled, puzzling, and unsolved' (8) which needs to be resolved), presented in a context which is supportive, which has been so framed that it leads to the acquisition of problem-solving skills and general knowledge (9,10). The representation consist of a listing of the problems (usually vocationally-oriented) and a schema for progress through those problems (11).

The expressive representation is fitted to educational curriculum-making only with courage. Starting from the position that many worthwhile activities in real life are undertaken without any statement of objectives (or intentions beyond those of the most general kind), one represents the curriculum as a series of activities 'that have no explicit or precise objectives' (Eisner). These activities are known to be likely to be fruitful, but probably they will be fruitful and equally successful for different individuals in different ways. The objectives are then understood retrospectively in a process which may very well amount to criticism or connoisseurship (Eisner).

The action-research representation presents curriculum as an investigatory programme in which plans for action are formulated, put into practice, monitored, evaluated with the purpose of formulating a new plan for action, and so on, cyclically. It is well-described by Kemmis (12) and elsewhere.

The connections between these entities, and the questions to which they are responses, are summarised in Table 1 which sets them out in the sequence in which it is proposed they should be answered.

TABLE 1

What is the purpose of education?	cognitive processes academic rationalism personal relevance social reconstruction curriculum as technology
In what terms do we value educational experience?	technical political scientific aesthetic ethical
What may be manipulated in order to achieve desired ends in education?	learner teacher subject matter milieu
How do we communicate to others about the nature of educational experience?	Tyler representation problem-solving expressive action-research

Understanding the relationship between the elements of this framework may be helped by an extended theatrical metaphor. We might begin by asking about the purposes of a theatrical performance. Such a question is answered by author, producer, and backers, who may in fact have very distinct views about why performances are produced.

The second question, about values, is addressed at two stages, just as it is for the curriculum model. Before the performance the question is asked by author and producer, and afterwards it is used by the critics (and the audience).

The agents for the theatrical production are the director (teacher), the players (learners), the author's work (subject matter), and the staging, including the audience (the milieu).

Communication with others about what an observer has experienced - to others who were not present at the performance - varies according to the outcome the communicator seeks: 'How the performance might have been improved is as follows . . .', 'This is what they were trying to do . . .', 'It made me feel . . .' or 'Reflecting on what we did before, I think this is how we should go . . .'.

Note that it is not necessary to be specific about the kind of performance - scripted or improvisational, street theatre, opera, dance, cinematic film, and so on; all contain the elements used in the curriculum framework.

Now reasons for constructing a curriculum framework are at least two-fold: retrospectively, a framework allows the criticism of existing curricula; in planning a curriculum, it may alert one to issues which might otherwise be overlooked. While it cannot be guaranteed that the use of a framework will eliminate omissions, it should certainly reduce them. It may also open up possibilities previously ignored.

This chapter will be completed with, firstly, a consideration and criticism of one course in detail. Secondly, the recommendations included in the Beasley and Beasley section of this study and quoted in Chapter 1 will also be analysed using the curriculum framework which has been established. In this way, the meanings of the system will become more explicit and, at the same time, the reader will be better prepared for the next chapter in which the framework is used to provide additional specific recommendations.

What does 'curriculum' mean within the TAFE transition education sector? Obviously there are many answers to this question, but one will be presented here in some detail as an example only. The particular example chosen is used to illustrate a case, and neither praise nor condemnation is intended. One particular pre-vocational course available through the South Australian Department of TAFE will be used because the published document is so explicit about its purpose (other pre-vocational courses in South Australia have a similar structure), which is 'to communicate the structure, content and purpose of the course and the means by which this will be assessed in such a form that it is capable of effective translation into practice'. (Similar purposes would be claimed, of course, for the published Year 12 courses in every State: there is nothing extraordinary in the statement.)

The curriculum, then, for this course, consists of:

(a) a detailed classificatory statement about the position of this course in the TAFE system;

(b) an historical statement giving backgrounds to the course and setting out its approval details;

(c) a statement about who shall have access to the course, and guidance as to the counselling and interviewing which should be undertaken for student selection, expectation about attendance, allowances, prerequisites, bridging courses and class size (although this last is not specified);

(d) a statement of aims for the course;

(e) a statement of objectives for the course;

(f) details of the course structure, including the principles upon which it is based, and a breakdown and a brief statement about each of the four segments of the course - the introductory segment which is common to all pre-vocational courses in South Australia, a segment relative to the particular vocational cluster which is managed on campus, a third segment, related to the same vocational cluster but intended to be conducted off campus, and a Life Skills segment (also common to all South Australian pre-vocational courses);

(g) a chart showing the relationship between the segments, and another chart showing how different topics are integrated;

(h) a table showing approximate time allocations for each segment;

(i) statements about the sequence in which units and topics are to be handled;

(j) statements about student assessment, homework and the syllabuses, in terms of topic objectives, suggested content and suggested assessment, teaching strategies, and resources and texts;

(k) details of course teaching methods;

(l) statements about the relationship to other TAFE courses, the status of the course, the maintenance of standards, and course evaluation.

Course statements in other States may have more or fewer components than this one, but this does at least provide a list from which it is possible to work.

In analysing this course as presented, we shall move backwards through the table which has been presented above. It should be emphasised that at this point, only the overall presentation and structure are being considered; shortly we shall move to a more detailed analysis of one part of the course.

Representation

As presented, the written description falls wholly within the Tyler representation - the dominant ideology, as had been indicated above. Sections (d) through (j) as listed above appear to have been written with the Tyler questions before the author. Other representations are not hinted at.

Agents of curriculum

As presented, the document deals almost wholly with subject matter. But there <u>are</u> references to the other agents; (a), (b), and (l) all provide information about the milieu within which the course exists, (c) does contain some information about the students, and (k), as well as (f), provides information on the role of the teacher.

Value system

The value system, at least as presented, appears to be technical. Thus, for example (and this will be returned to later), in the section on Life Skills we find

> The Life Skills are included in the course as they are fundamental skills which all young persons should acquire for survival in the community. They are also vocationally relevant skills. (p. 115)

Orientation

Although the dominant ideology insists that the curriculum be viewed as a technology, and this is to be found overwhelmingly in the document as presented, the Life Skills component (despite being involved with 'vocationally relevant skills') does make use of the <u>personal relevance</u> orientation.

Now it is plain enough that the document viewed as a whole reflects the dominant ideology. But if we examine part of it more closely, we may see finer detail which moves away from that model. We will consider two sections - a 20-hour component on basic mathematics and the 216-hour Life Skills component.

Basic mathematics

The representation of this section follows the pattern for the course overall, with a single exception; although the layout is the one used throughout the course description, the section headed 'suggested assessment' is blank. Indeed, for only one other section is the column for assessment left blank, and that is the section on General Safety and First Aid. This omission is rendered more significant by the appearance of suggested assessment for Orientation Week ('informal assessment'). Given that this appears on the surface to be an attempt at teacher-proof curriculum the omission is striking. The omission may be accidental or deliberate, but recall that it appears in a document which makes large claims for its own utility. Otherwise the Tyler pattern is followed. The suggested teaching strategies refer to teacher, subject matter and milieu. The value system is plainly technical and the orientation also matches that of the course overall.

Life skills (personal development)

Here we might reasonably expect some variation from the overall pattern. It was this section which reflected the Personal Relevance orientation when the course as a whole was being considered. We will restrict our attention to the first of six modules - that relating to personal development.

Once again the layout matches the Tyler representation; there are 17 activities which, it is the objective of the module, the student should be able to carry out by the end of the module. (There are 140 of these skills in the 216 hour course, and rather more objectives, since some are not numbered.) For each one there are suggested contents and assessments (two omissions on the assessment column - the reason for the omission is not clear).

In this module, as might be expected from its general nature, the subject matter is in fact given less emphasis, while the role of the student is magnified. Thus there is a substantial proportion of self- and group-assessment, with a corresponding lowering of the teacher's profile. The social milieu considered tends to be a very limited one - small group activities are referred to several times.

And when the value system is examined it seems, if anything fits closely, to be political in the sense which has been used earlier. Power relations play an important part - assertiveness training in particular. But despite the inclusion of LS 15 ('recognise the power politics that operate in the work place') there is no sign of a reflective stance toward the student-teacher, student-society relationships, which might have been expected if a political value system were being strongly promoted.

Personal relevance, rather than any other orientation, determines the nature of this module.

The foregoing shows that curriculum structures can be heterogeneous; this should not be surprising, but it should perhaps be emphasised that this is the case in order to encourage those who believe that, for example, a particular part of a course needs representation in a way which differs from the standard pattern, or requires a different value system.

An illustration of the way in which an examination of curriculum structures might be employed more generally is provided by the recommendations of Beasley & Beasley (reported in Chapter 1) which will now be considered within the framework that has been constructed.

Collectively, these recommendations are located far from the dominant ideology; the orientation is predominantly that of personal relevance, the value system primarily political, the agents whose interests are given most consideration are the learner and the social milieu, and although no one representation is exclusively advocated, the action-research representation seems most nearly to match the recommendations. However, most parts of the framework are represented somewhere in these recommendations, as will be illustrated below.

Relationship to orientations

The cognitive processes orientation is given attention at least once.

> 'The nature of the full range of local secondary and post-secondary courses should be examined with the object of producing an integrated network of study options of varying degrees of complexity, and with varying skill and knowledge requirements' (Chapter 1, Recommendation 13).

The academic rationalism and curriculum as technology

orientations seem to be omitted.

The personal development orientation is the predominant one, as indicated above, but it is also to be found in association with the social reconstruction orientation.

> The most effective programs are likely to be those in which the students "select themselves in", because they see the program as relevant to their needs rather than programs which are designed by "experts" who are solely responsible for the selection of students. This is not intended to diminish the value of "expertise", but rather to suggest that expertise achieves the most powerful results when made available to people to use in what they judge to be their best interests.
>
> (i) A related challenge is to be able to respond flexibly to the needs of students when a course is actually under way.
>
> (ii) The objective is the development of a curriculum which has an essential framework derived from the expertise and the previous experience of the program co-ordinators and teachers, but which is modified as a result of 'negotiation' with students in order better to meet their needs and aspirations' (Chapter 1, Recommendation 11f).
>
> The vocational orientation of TAFE transition education should not be rescinded in any progression towards PEP. Rather the concept of vocationalism needs to be reinterpreted in order to avoid its supply-side and individualistic character.
>
> Similarly, although aspects of liberal educational philosophy are seen to be of positive benefit to students, for example, the student-centred approach, again there is a failure to incorporate collective action as a part of personal/social development.
>
> A "socially-critical" orientation which accepts the liberal educational concern with social improvement, but sees this as occurring via collective action involving the development of critical thinking not just in individuals but as a part of a group process, might allow useful aspects of both vocational and liberal principles to be incorporated within PEP (Chapter 1, Recommendation 2).

Relationship to value system

The political value system is by far the strongest, as this sample recommendation indicates:

> Time should be allocated within courses, particularly after work experience or work observation, for discussions concerning the application of work skills and discussions which analyse how this part of the course is related to or reflects aspects of wider social, economic and political structures in society (Chapter 1, Recommendation 4).

The scientific value system is, however, given attention in several recommendations which are concerned with management.

> In the development of such a coherent program over time, the following aspects should be considered:
>
> > Given that the target groups are almost certainly lacking in confidence, there is a need for participation and equity programs to encourage a greater sense of self-worth and autonomy.
> >
> > (i) The value of segregated groups, integrated groups, or some mixture of these needs to be investigated. Students who are vulnerable or lacking confidence may need forms of sanctuary within programs. In mixed programs, support groups (enclaves) may be essential for many students.
> >
> > (ii) Role models (either staff or people from the community invited to participate in the program) should be provided wherever possible (Chapter 1, Recommendation 11a)

The ethical value system is also called upon:

> Care must be taken to ensure that a program does not overtly or covertly reinforce those social elements which produced (or contributed to) the disadvantage which the program seeks to overcome. Sexist or racist practices and materials, for example, should be eliminated. Genuine collaboration with target groups would probably make it easy to identify these problem areas (Chapter 1, Recommendation 11b).

The agents of curriculum

All the agents, and many of the relationships between them, are explored in the recommendations.

Learners

In developing a PEP curriculum it would be advisable to include a conscious recognition of the likely personal, cultural, social, economic and familiar backgrounds of the majority of enrolling students. It is also important that students' backgrounds be viewed positively but, where aspects of their experience have denied them equality in the wider social context, a recognition of this fact should be incorporated in the development of policy and practice in order to promote more equitable opportunities within courses (Chapter 1, Recommendation 5).

Teachers

An advisory service capable of mounting the necessary staff development programs and offering ongoing assistance with curriculum development and program evaluation is necessary (Chapter 1, Recommendation 11d).

Adequate development, implementation and evaluation of participation and equity programs is very demanding of time and energy. Not only will staff require assistance in the areas of curriculum development and evaluation, they should also have adequate time. Failure to provide adequate time will lead to "burn-out", the subsequent loss of valuable expertise, and considerable personal trauma for individual staff (Chapter 1, Recommendation 11e).

Subject matter

As much as possible, components of real work experience and observation should be developed as significant sections of PEP courses (Chapter 1, Recommendation 3).

Social milieu

Participation and equity programs should be developed, advertised, implemented and evaluated in close collaboration with the young people who constitute the

target group(s), their families, and the social groups to which they belong (Chapter 1, Recommendation 9).

The representations

Representations are found in the action-research form:

> In order to develop PEP courses which are actively and quickly responsive, rather than reactive, it is advisable that as much as possible collective and individual student participation be included in the content, organisation and direction of any course (Chapter 1, Recommendation 5).

and also in the Tyler form:

> Clear and concrete statements of course objectives and strategies, anticipated outcomes and selection criteria should be produced and be made available to all interested persons by way of the local CES offices, and other means judged most appropriate for the particular target group (Chapter 1, Recommendation 12).
>
> Part of the time allocation in every course should include a specific recognition of the time required for evaluation, with those prepared to undertake formative evaluation receiving sufficient time to carry out this activity without undue stress (Chapter 1, Recommendation 20).

Warning

Systems are neither complete nor omniscient. The framework presented here may be useful, but awareness of natural hazards is also useful. Eisner and Vallance (13) warn of three fallacies in the discussion of curriculum.

Eisner and Vallance warn us to avoid the fallacy of formalism - the belief that <u>how</u> learners learn is what is important, not what they learn - and its mirror-image, the fallacy of content - that on the contrary <u>what</u> learners learn matters, not how they learn it. Each of these is attractive, but if educators are aware of the dangers of extremes they may choose more appropriate faiths. The third fallacy of which Eisner warns is perhaps the most dangerous. The fallacy of universalism, which leads to the search for the one best curriculum, with its 'one size fits all' philosophy, is often manifested in the identification of one content area, and one way of handling that content area, which is considered best for everyone.

In thinking about curriculum it is difficult for administrators to avoid the attractiveness of a universal fix. Some reference is therefore made to such problems in the next chapter.

Summary

This chapter has introduced an extensive framework for the consideration of curriculum. This framework is intended not as a pigeon-holing device, but rather as one which encourages the exploration of alternatives to standard patterns of curriculum thinking.

The framework has been applied to an existing curriculum statement, to illustrate its use on a conventional curriculum statement, and then to a series of recommendations about curriculum. These recommendations, slightly modified, are fitted onto the framework which has been proposed. In the following chapter the framework will be applied to the general question of specifying desirable curriculum ends in the TAFE-PEP (and similar) programs.

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CHAPTER 4: HOW? THE SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTION OF TRANSITION EDUCATION

A general framework for the consideration of curriculum questions has been constructed (Chapter 3) and details of a particular group participating in curriculum activities have been given (Chapters 1 and 2). We need now to consider the characteristics of the particular program in order to use the framing questions effectively.

BACKGROUND

At the National Youth Conference in October 1979 the then Minister for Employment and Youth Affairs said:

> The Government has therefore been considering a new transition policy to help people move from school to work.
>
> The basic philosophy behind the thinking is that young people in the 15-19 years age group should have a comprehensive range of education, training and employment options available to them which makes unemployment, in the sense of idleness at the community's expense, an unacceptable alternative. (1)

When this was reworked as a policy statement the language had been modified, in November 1979, to:

> The aim of the Commonwealth's policy is that ultimately all young people in the 15-19 age group would be provided with options in education, training and employment, or any combination of these, either part-time or full-time, so that unemployment becomes the least acceptable alternative. (2)

Earlier that year Ron Fitzgerald's submission on Entry To Work to the Committee of Inquiry into Education and Training had provided, in one of his chapter headings, an accurate statement about the existing employment situation - 'The jobs just aren't there'. Since then it has become increasingly obvious that the imbalance between the number of jobs available and the number of young workers seeking employment is now, and is likely to remain, large. The situation is summarised neatly in Chapter 2 of Beasley and Beasley. Yet the Commonwealth's 1981 guidelines for

the school-to-work transition program urge the submission of proposals 'likely to enhance specific vocational development and employability of participants, having regard to such factors as job opportunities and course location'. The purpose of this section is to explore the curriculum implications of such policies.

The Commonwealth has defined a limited objective for citizens - in essence, the purpose of the young citizen is to be employed; this is why the government seeks to present a range of options which makes unattractive the choice of unemployment. Such a statement addresses the question of the purpose of education in a general way, but nevertheless focuses upon one particular curriculum orientation (as has already been noted) and therefore begins the process of situating programs within an overall framework.

At the same time, that policy expresses a commitment to a tripartite support system for young adults. For those in the age range 15-19 years it is stated that the policy will provide options in

> education (through funding for secondary and tertiary institutions),
>
> training (through support for apprenticeships and other programs via the TAFE sector) and employment

What does offering these as attractive options mean?

Schemes such as this may easily become difficult to implement. And a policy such as this has meaning only insofar as it can be implemented. As soon as implementation policies are defined difficulties are experienced.

Two recent examples may be taken from Victoria to illustrate the range of problems which may emerge. First we consider a case in which general policy for a whole group is being defined (which at the same time illustrates the fallacy of universalism referred to at the end of Chapter 3).

In 1985 a Ministerial Review in Victoria produced an interesting example of the 'Big Picture' solution to transition education. The Committee for the review was charged with the responsibility of reviewing and making recommendations with respect to educational and training provisions for those aged 15-19 but not in higher education or TAFE courses which were complementary to employment.

The report of the committee (3) indicated that members felt that concern about employment was leading to an over-emphasis on skills at the expense of broader cultural content (para. 4.5). But the report also expressed concern about the failure of the present system to meet the needs of 'students unlikely to reach standards appropriate for entry into higher education in mathematics, science and humanities' who could 'nevertheless significantly improve their levels of competence and gain much from courses which enable them to do so'. A particular problem for such students was 'the existence of a single reference point for judging achievements, which must be registered over a fixed period of time and assessed within a single mode which effectively prevents (them) from advancing in study and can persuade them that there is little point in attempting to do so' (para. 4.6).

It is important to note this expression of concern, because it is the last time one reads about it in the report. Setting a target of 70% completion of Year 12 by 1995 (and thus identifying a group of 30% who do not complete the standard aimed for), and being well aware of the disadvantage it is establishing as a desirable goal ('While holding qualifications is no longer a guarantee of continuous employment or of employment appropriate to them, the absence of qu lifications is a serious disadvantage as an increasingly higher proportion of the population comes to hold them' (para 3.11) the committee goes on to recommend the introduction of a single certificate, to be called the Victorian Certificate of Education (VCE) (Recommendation 18). While there is much discussion of the bringing together of various senior certificates under the VCE there is no discussion anywhere in the report of provisions for the (minimum of) 30% of adolescents whom the recommendations have, in the words of the review's committee, put at 'a serious disadvantage'.

The report shows clearly that the authors were aware of the problems they would create, but nevertheless they went ahead to produce recommendations which would ensure that 30% of the age group 15-19 years were on the outside looking in. Since, under these and other recommendations in Victoria, the TAFE offerings at Years 11 and 12 are to be brought under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education (and therefore be defined as schooling) the 30% must be expected to seek either full-time employment or a TAFE course with concurrent employment (such as an apprenticeship). Either of these courses of action seems less than likely to succeed for those not at school for, as the Report has already been cited as indicating, 'the absence of qualifications is a serious disadvantage as an increasingly higher proportion of the population comes to hold them'.

This attempt at a wholesale solution, and the difficulties to which it will, on the basis of its own analyses, inexorably lead, may be contrasted with a very different, much smaller proposal, i.e. the Participation and Equity TAFE programs.

Let us consider some figures current for one State to indicate the scale of the program. In 1985 the PEP TAFE transition program in Victoria reached around 2000 participants. (4) The TAFE Board submission for PEP in 1986 lists programs designed to reach slightly fewer students. (5) The number of unemployed young people in Victoria during the early 1980s, was approximately 30,000. On that basis the PEP proposals for 1986 in Victoria will reach about 6% of those whom the program is intended to serve. ('approximately 30,000' is a useful phrase: suppose things are significantly better than is represented by that figure, and that by an economic turn-around of vast proportion the number of young unemployed in Victoria dropped to 10,000: then the PEP program would reach just 20% of those it is intended to serve.)

This proportion, around 6%, is consistent with that cited by Davis and Woodburne (6) for their national 1980-81 study (around 7%). Many more young people are served by programs such as the Special Youth Employment Training Program. Thus the PEP TAFE program cannot be expected to have significant impact upon the labour market in terms, for example, of skill levels.

It is, almost, a matter of damned if you do and damned if you don't. A program which is too large is likely to be self-defeating (though it need not be) while a relatively small program may not have effects on the scale expected by those who initially support it.

These two programs, one general and theoretical, the other particular and direct in its application, suffer from the same deficiency - an inadequate assessment of program impact. The imperatives of bureaucratic organisation may militate against attention to such detail, but there are substantial curriculum implications; almost any curriculum model demands significant investigation of the target population, and given the universal challenges offered in both cited cases the failure to account for all clients is alarming. Recommendations 1 and 2, which follow, indicate steps which should be taken.

Recommendation 1

TAFE Authorities in co-operation with appropriate other Authorities in each State/Territory should prepare annual mission statements which establish the principles upon which PEP programs will operate under each authority.

Recommendation 2

Among the contents of a mission statement should be a table setting out the youth support provisions for the 15-19 age group under the various State and Federal schemes. The table should show the number (or percentage) of the age group covered by each scheme. In particular the table should show, as well as the number covered by the TAFE PEP program for that year, the number not covered explicitly by other programs who are eligible for TAFE/PEP. The total should match appropriately the ABS figures for the age population. (See Endnotes 1981 Guidelines 6, 21.)

(It is recognised that movement between programs and other factors will produce some difficulties of definition but none of these renders the task impossible.)

The purpose of these recommendations, apart from their connotations in terms of accountability, is to establish a base from which to derive curriculum decisions. Within TAFE/PEP it will be possible to indicate, as part of the mission statement, the per capita funding available in terms of the eligible population. Indeed, per capita funding for each youth support sector should become public knowledge. But for TAFE/PEP it will then become possible to expand upon the curriculum orientation of the program. Some TAFE Authorities already do this, but Recommendation 3 proposes a framework for that curriculum statement.

Recommendation 3

a) As part of the mission statement TAFE Authorities should set out State/Territory priorities with respect to such of the various curriculum orientations described in this document as are appropriate.

b) Priority statements should take into account the unsuitability of some curriculum orientations for the target population.

c) In addressing priorities established by Commonwealth Guidelines 19 and 20 the mission statement should specify social goals in terms consistent with the level of funding available.

d) In addressing Commonwealth Guideline 22 TAFE Authorities should ensure that priority statements are sufficiently broad.

One further recommendation deals directly with the actions of the State and Federal TAFE Authorities; it relates to work reported in Chapter 2, but has additional implications indicated in a later recommendation.

Recommendation 4

> State and Federal TAFE Authorities should take steps to develop and maintain a database which contains information of the kind produced by Richetti (see the Appendix to Chapter 2), and which allows more extended analysis, in order to monitor characteristics of the target population and thus to alert authorities to changes, either sudden or gradual, which may require modification to program practices.

The remaining recommendations are intended to be applied at the course level, though there may be some implications at State or Federal level. These recommendations are presented within the framework developed in Chapter 3, and incorporate in modified form the recommendations in the final chapter of Beasley and Beasley. The first of these recommends the replication at the individual course level of suggestions already given at State level.

ORIENTATIONS TOWARDS CURRICULUM VALUES IN CURRICULUM

Recommendation 5

> Proposals for courses should indicate the view of the proposer(s) of the educational purposes of the proposed course and the ways in which the educational activities pursued by course participants will be valued. The exploration of values should be an integral part of each course, and in particular the course should involve conscious attempts to
>
> a) uncover the social causes of any inequality which affects the lives of participants, and

b) avoid the perpetuation of such inequalities in its own intentions or practices.

AGENTS OF CURRICULUM - SOCIAL MILIEU

The conventional elements in any curriculum statement should be expanded, as has been indicated in the previous chapter. The next recommendation deals with the place of the curriculum activities within a cultural context; most of the content is straightforward, but the possibility of the successful operation of a transition education program being carried out to the fullest extent may be reduced significantly by traditional, convenient, but in the final analysis unnecessary constraints. It is clear from a consideration of the way in which transition education courses are managed within TAFE that often constraints, especially those relating to timetabling, follow the general TAFE pattern; this may be administratively simpler, but it may, for some participants, be destructive and render impossible the achievement of appropriate goals. Attention is therefore drawn to 6(e).

Recommendation 6

Courses should reflect an understanding of the significance of the social context of the TAFE/PEP program (this is used to stand, here and below, for any TAFE transition program, now or in the future). In particular

a) courses should be integrated with (and not isolated from) that social context of which the developed curriculum is a component - at least the local community, the educational community, and the vocational community should be considered;

b) those managing courses should ensure that participants are given extensive information about these communities, especially information concerning the circumstances (political, social, educational, and vocational) which led to the establishment of the TAFE/PEP program, the range of courses within that program, details of the sites at which particular courses are offered, and the ways in which particular courses meet the aims of the TAFE/PEP program;

c) courses should include orientation and exit programs for both students and teachers to facilitate smooth transition between course and community;

d) courses should be so managed as to provide access both to employment and to the greatest possible subsequent range of educational and training programs, and should include provision for the attainment of acceptability in the whole community;

e) courses should use those elements of social organisation best fitted to achieve the aims of the TAFE/PEP program, even though this may lead to some variation from the standard practices of the institution within which the course is offered;

f) courses should where possible be capable of adaptation to changing community needs without major disruption.

AGENTS OF CURRICULUM - TEACHERS

The characteristics of staff for courses suggested by any reasonable mission statement imply highly skilled and committed workers. This is dealt with in the next recommendation.

Recommendation 7

The selection of staff for courses offered within the TAFE/PEP program should acknowledge the major role staff have as change-agents.

a) The program requires staff who

(i) are likely to be empathetic with members of the defined target group;
(ii) are able to attract and intensify community support for the course;
(iii) have appropriate economic, political, technological, and pedagogical knowledge and experience;
(iv) have the personal qualities which enable them to manage a diverse group with complex needs, and the flexibility to adapt to a changing environment.

b) The program should offer security to staff in order to provide continuity and facilitate learning and development.

c) The program should ensure that staff receive appropriate support for further personal and skill development, and that such further development is appropriately recognised.

d) The program should actively encourage the development between staff for this course and other TAFE personnel of relationships which are mutually beneficial.

AGENTS OF CURRICULUM - SUBJECT MATTER

Chapter 2 has made some clear statements about the target population and its characteristics. The next two recommendations suggest ways in which the participants should influence courses.

Recommendation 8

A course designed for a particular target group should

a) overtly acknowledge that specificity in cultural, social, economic, and political terms;

b) be offered within a public, agreed-upon, and cohesive framework which fosters the development of course activities which enrich, inform, and empower participants culturally, socially, economically, and politically;

c) make use of participants' prior knowledge and experience, and facilitate the further development of existing skills;

d) be so arranged as to encourage collective and individual participation in all aspects of course management;

e) encourage conscious, critical analysis of all aspects of the course in terms of negotiated value-systems, recognising the (possibly-different) claims of individual, group, and whole community;

f) support the development of individual and collective autonomy in order to achieve the stated aims of the program.

Recommendation 9

> Courses should, to the extent that it is possible, encourage self-critical study by participants with the aim of understanding relationships with others both inside and outside the course. To this end participants should be provided with updated information gathered by the system suggested in Recommendation 4, and the critical study of these data should form the basis for a component of the course.

The changing nature of the interests of program participants has been reported in Chapter 2. The following recommendation is intended to address that issue.

Recommendation 10

> In the definition of the subject matter addressed in the course substantial weight should be given to studies which can be carried out in, or applied to, the local community. At the same time the need for particular kinds of personal development, as expressed by participants (either individually or collectively) should be recognised and met.

The term 'basic skills' is encountered frequently in one form or another in descriptions of courses in the TAFE/PEP program. An extended discussion therefore introduces the next recommendation.

LITERACY AND NUMERACY

Literacy and numeracy are reliable warhorses of transition education. Within TAFE transition education programs, for example, it is uncommon to find one which has neither of these as an identifiable component. Elsewhere, the already mentioned Blackburn report (6) recommends (Recommendation 16) the use of 'standardised tests in oral and written communication and in the basic mathematical processes'. But what do these programs and recommendations mean by 'literacy and numeracy'?

Basic Mathematics in one's States pre-vocational (electrical trades) course means about 20 hours of 'arithmetic, approximation, transposition, substitution and solution, perimeters, surface area, volume, graphs, trigonometrical ratios, square roots, Pythagoras' theorem, indices and calculators'.

Other basic mathematics components in these prevocational courses may extend the areas covered to deal with additional trade-related components. Basic English in these pre-vocational courses seems typically to mean about 20 hours devoted to 'eight parts of speech, punctuation, sentences, paragraphs, precis writing, comprehension, spelling and vocabulary'. The Blackburn Report sets down as the appropriate goal 'competence in communication skills and number operations adequate to be able to engage in post-compulsory studies' (para. 4.35).

Are these the emphases that there should be on literacy and numeracy in transition education? The short answer is 'no'. The problem probably lies more with the interpretation than with the topics, but the simple truth is that as adolescents move through the transition stage they need to have begun a move away from their childish ways of using words and numbers towards adult ways. What is meant by this?

In his recent book Illiterate America Jonathan Kozol describes starkly the problem of adult illiteracy:

> Twenty-five million American adults cannot read the poison warnings on a can of pesticide, a letter from their child's teacher, or the front page of a daily paper. An additional 35 million read only at a level which is less than equal to the full survival needs of our society. (7)

During the early 1970s there were in the United States substantial studies on adult literacy; a study by Lou Harris (1970) suggested that up to 15% of Americans might be functionally illiterate leading to a more extended study directed by Norvell Northcutt at the University of Texas at Austin. (8) Kozol's book, written some ten years after the original University of Texas study was completed, attempts to bring the results dramatically to public attention. There have also been many studies of literacy within TAFE in Australia.

There were also extensive studies done which attempted to investigate the question of illiteracy more closely. One useful distinction, made by Mikulecky and others (9) was between 'reading to learn' and 'reading to do'. On-the-job reading - for a variety of occupations - was mainly 'reading to do', not 'reading to learn'. Sticht went so far as to write (10) that the present results show that reading is not altogether a generic skill assessable by any test of general reading. Training in reading at school is, of course, in 'reading to learn', not 'reading to do'. The Blackburn report, as quoted above, specifies 'reading to learn' as the objective in communication skills.

Now it certainly may be that many adolescents need training in 'reading to learn'; but it is also true that this is the time when the change towards reading in order to do things - to acquire information and use that information to do something other than go on to acquire more information - must have at least begun.

In mathematics a similar, though perhaps even more unfortunate situation, obtains. Readers of this document will have come across the adolescent who cannot cope with mathematics in school but can handle real mathematics outside the school. In this context, it may be worth referring to the experience of James Herndon (11), who, having discovered that the archetypal 'maths failure' was a whiz at practical mathematics outside the classroom, then tried to bring the street mathematics, with minimal changes, into the classroom with predictable results (the same lack of success as before, because everyone learns that they cannot do school mathematics). In addition to this, the bulk of school mathematics is also 'learning to learn' rather than 'learning to do'. This combination is clearly a recipe for disaster.

The evidence is that this is how adolescents feel about it. But employers see things differently. Two recent studies in Victoria are indicative.

At the end of 1984 the Victorian Employers' Federation undertook a survey of members' views of the performance of school leavers (whether HSC or earlier); the most common recommendation for improvement to the HSC was for 'more emphasis on basic skills such as spelling, reading, writing and maths'. (12)

A 1981 Victorian Chamber of Manufactures/Transition Education Advisory Committee report (13) studied extensively the relationship between 58 young workers, their employers, supervisors and teachers. Only about 6% of young workers, at the most, were regarded by employers as unsatisfactory in any of nine communication skills areas (though young workers were less happy with their own performance). In the case of mathematics none of the young workers was reported to be unsatisfactory with respect to performance in any of 26 different content areas. But answers to another pair of questions were revealing of the difference between school and job performance: employers expected a much higher level of accuracy in whole number calculations than young workers had when they started. (Yet the level of accuracy achieved by the young workers when they started was much higher than their teachers would have expected!)

In adult life - especially perhaps among the young - there is an expectation that performance in mathematics will be at a high level of competence, but at a low level of complexity. Most secondary school mathematics courses require a relatively low level of performance (satisfactory performance in a Year 12 external examination often corresponds to about half marks) for more complex mathematics. School mathematics of this kind does not match on-the-job requirements well.

Thus in both of these key areas there is usually a great discrepancy between school practice and adult needs. Now one may justify some of the discrepancy, especially in earlier years, on pedagogical grounds; children who are starting to learn probably do need to spend a large proportion of the time equipping themselves for more learning. And when children are learning mathematics it may be pedagogically sound to encourage them by giving credit for a partially-right answer; but on-the-job there are only right and wrong answers.

Schools do not seem to be very good at moving away from practices which are appropriate for dealing with children. Literacy and numeracy mean something different to adults functioning in the real world, and at the stage of 'transition education' (tightly defined) educators must begin to offer training in adult skills, rather than ones suitable only for children.

The basis for literacy/numeracy development in transition education should therefore be that the purpose of verbal acts is to enact change in the world, and that the purpose of mathematical acts is to achieve a perfect, not a partial, match between the world and its numerical representation.

Where literacy and numeracy are to be taken as components of a transition education program then the capacity to use words and numbers in these <u>adult</u> ways should be an ultimate objective (in Tylerian terms) though not necessarily an immediate one.

Given that a substantial proportion of participants in programs have employment objectives in mind, enhancement of performance with words and numbers will be more likely to take place when the setting is vocational and/or 'relevant'. In terms of the general principles set down earlier in this section, that means activities which result in doing something, rather than merely acquiring skills which might some day be useful. In the case of the development of literacy this suggests some concentration upon transactional skills, both in terms of writing (giving instructions or information which is to be used) and reading (in particular, being able to read and apply, or explain, instructions). In the case of writing this might apply particularly in the sort of exploratory or evaluative activities

which ought to be part of any transition education program. In the case of development of numeracy the advice is more explicit. Most mathematics 'tests' are highly undesirable, whether the student is planning further study or not, and finding materials which have an appropriate orientation is difficult indeed. Two specific examples of materials may be cited.

1. Understanding change (part of the Mathematics At Work series published by the Australian Academy of Science) takes the user through a series of mathematical exercises in the context of the operation of a small business. It is out of date, and not all of it is useful, but the approach may give teachers in transition programs encouragement to explore a connected series of exercises.

2. Statistics for bargainers (Karl Hedderwick, Hutchinson, 1975) is again somewhat out of date and uses examples in English currency. But the ideas explored have meaning for people seeking work - essentially the mathematics which a shop steward might find it useful to have - and once again examination of this may encourage teachers to do something different.

The need for a change in approach from earlier school practice has been suggested in several places: there is no point in emulating unsuccessful types of instruction.

Recommendation 11

> The acquisition of particular skills should be part of an integrated program, and the identification of desirable skills should be managed with sensitivity both to individual and collective needs, and to change processes in society.

The inclusion of vocational skills in TAFE/PEP programs depends significantly upon the availability of local resources. Nevertheless a general recommendation can be made.

Recommendation 12

> The inclusion of vocational skills as a part of a course should be viewed as an opportunity to stress the development of the skills of collaboration and co-operation rather than the forms of individualistic competition often favoured in school systems. The selection of appropriate vocational skills for a particular course should be sensitive to market forces.

REPRESENTATION OF CURRICULUM

The final recommendation refers to the way in which courses should be presented. It has been made clear above that the Tyler model, while widely used, is often unsuitable, and an alternative should be chosen.

Recommendation 13

> A course should be represented by the form of description which most suits the course. No requirement for any particular form of description should be set down, but within the chosen form there should be sufficient detail for public accountability. Where evaluation and assessment are included as components of the representation, these should be varied, appropriate, and conducted with the intention of improving practice.

Recommendations such as these have significant resource implications. Costs can in some cases be reduced by co-operation between systems: Recommendation 4 in particular makes most sense, and minimises costs, if managed as a national effort.

The magnitude of the demands made on teachers by transition education programs requires the closest attention. No matter how skilled or dedicated staff are (and Recommendation 7 makes clear the levels required), they need adequate time to plan and implement programs of the highest quality. If adequate provision can be made for staff then more responsibility may be devolved on them, which in turn will benefit the transition education programs. If the capacity of teachers to plan is impaired by constraints on time then the administrative load for others is likely to increase significantly.

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4. From an unpublished survey conducted for the TAFE Board, courtesy of P. Lochert.

5. TAFE Board submission to TAFE Council Participation and Equity Program 1986. Melbourne: TAFE Board.

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7. Cited in Manas 10 September 1985.

8. See, for example, User's guide, adult APL survey. (1976). Iowa City: American College Testing Program.

9. Mikulecky, L. (1981). Job literacy; the relationship between school participation and workplace actuality, final report, NIE G-79-0168. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University.

10. Sticht, T. G. (1975). Reading for working: a functional literacy anthology. Alexandria, Va: HumRRO.

11. Herndon J. (1972). How to survive in your native land. New York: Bantam. pp. 92-7.

12. Victorian Employers' Federation. (1985). Higher school certificate survey. Melbourne: VEF.

13. Bride M., & Knights, B. (1981). Young people in transition. Melbourne: VCM.

ENDNOTES

Commonwealth School to Work Transition Program: 1981 Guidelines

No.6. In order to monitor the development of the Program and its effectiveness the State and non-government authorities will systematically collect appropriate descriptive statistical and other information concerning courses and other activities funded under the Program. This information will be co-ordinated and collated by the Commonwealth in consultation with State authorities and made available to all participating authorities.

No.21. The nature of courses and selection criteria for participants should be such as to attract enrolments from the target group with preference for the unemployed. To maximise access to courses by those in the target group, the authority should ensure that the CES, as the primary source for referrals of unemployed young people, and other similar government agencies, are given adequate opportunity to identify and refer such young people to selection interviews for all TAFE courses funded under the Program. There should be regular consultation between organisations of TAFE transition courses and CES officers so that CES officers have the opportunity of participating in the selection of candidates for these courses, and to allow a continuing relationship with the course participants to be maintained to provide appropriate employment counselling and job placement assistance.

APPENDIX A: DETAILS OF VICTORIAN TAFE PEP POPULATION

These tables give the details for the studies of the TAFE PEP population in Victoria in 1983 and 1985 carried out by Richetti, a summary of which appeared in Chapter 2. The tables are based upon approximately 1100 and 1300 respondent respectively.

Table 1 Ethnic Background of Participants

Country	Respondents 1983	1985
Australia	87.0%	82.0%
Other English-speaking	5.5%	4.0%
Northern Europe	1.0%	1.5%
Southern Europe	2.5%	2.5%
Middle East	0.7%	2.0%
Central/South America	0.5%	1.0%
Africa	0.5%	0.5%
Asia	2.3%	6.0%

Table 2 Father's occupation by status level using the ANU 2 scale)

Level	Respondents 1983	1985
Receiving benefits/unemployed	18.0%	22.0%
1) Lowest status	0.5%	13.5%
2)	29.0%	35.0%
3)	26.5%	17.0%
4) Middle status	16.0%	8.0%
5)	6.0%	2.0%
6)	3.5%	2.0%
7) Highest status	0.5%	0.5%

Table 3 Type of School last attended

School type	Respondents 1983	1985
High	46.5%	51.0%
Technical	35.0%	23.5%
Catholic	6.5%	6.0%
Special	6.0%	6.5%
Independent	3.0%	3.0%
Other/community	3.0%	3.5%
TAFE College	.0%	5.5%

Table 4 Schooling Level Attained

Year level	Respondents 1983	1985
Year 7 or below	6.0%	6.5%
Year 8	8.2%	7.0%
Year 9	21.8%	19.0%
Year 10	29.4%	28.5%
Year 11	24.4%	26.0%
Year 12	8.3%	11.0%
Tertiary	1.8%	2.0%

Table 5 Reasons for Leaving School

Reason	Respondents 1983	1985
Did not get on with teachers	-	2.5%
Asked by school to leave	3.7%	3.6%
Failed the last year attempted	3.2%	3.5%
Completed final year	4.2%	8.5%
Left to attend private course	0.8%	1.0%
Moved to another area	2.9%	3.5%
Crisis/could not cope	2.4%	10.0%
Reached ability level	11.6%	1.5%
Conflict at school	6.1%	2.0%
Felt that school had no value	8.2%	3.0%
Left to find a job	21.4%	17.0%
Had or thought they had a job	7.7%	6.5%
Needed money	7.4%	2.5%
Hated/disliked school	17.2%	14.5%
Outside pressures	1.1%	1.5%
Refused course entry	1.6%	0.5%

For Table 5 there has been some modification to the published figures, since in the original publication multiple codings were allowed: each proportion has been rescaled so that the whole totals 100%.

Unfortunately the data, as presented, hint at other possible changes but are not conclusive in several matters of interest. It is probable, for example, that the answers relating to inability to cope and reaching ability level at school should be combined and that the difference is due to differences in interpretation by respondents or slight variations in the wording of questions. But if the two percentages cannot be combined legitimately then there has been a large change in the population! It may also be that there were substantial reductions in the proportion leaving school because they hated, disliked, or were bored with school, and in the proportion leaving school to find a job. Monitoring of variables of this kind, and a careful interpretation of the outcomes, should lead to better understanding of the evolving population served by a program.

Table 6 How participants heard about the program (not mutually exclusive)

Heard through	Respondents 1983	1985
Newspaper, radio, TV	9.0%	11.0%
Contact with CES	50.5%	47.0%
Friends, family, ex-participants	23.5%	18.0%
Staff member/program worker	8.0%	11.0%
Social worker/teacher/youth worker	14.0%	18.0%
Other	2.0%	4.0%

Table 7 Main reason for joining program

Reason	Respondents 1983	1985
Employment objectives	27%	25.5%
Educational objectives	27%	34.0%
Personal development	6%	15.0%
External pressures	2%	0.5%
Boredom/nothing to do	17%	9.5%
Lonely/to make friends	13%	1.5%
Nothing to lose	2%	2.5%
Financial motives	2%	0.5%
Other positive motivations	7%	10.5%

In 1985 Richetti also produced some cross-tabulations for reasons for leaving school against schooling level attained and reason given for joining a program. These previously-unpublished tables appear below. The analyses appearing here are based upon about 1260 responses.

Table 8

Reasons for leaving school and school level achieved (Victoria, 1985)

This table shows, for each school level, the percentage giving a particular main reason for leaving.

Reason for leaving / Year Completed	Primary	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12	Tertiary	Total
Did not get on with teachers	1.7	0	6.3	4.9	2.8	0.9	0.8	0	2.6
Asked to leave	5.2	5.0	7.3	7.4	3.9	0.3	0	4.3	3.6
Failed	0	0	3.1	2.5	1.7	5.1	6.9	4.3	3.3
Completed final year attempted	3.4	0	0	0.8	0.8	9.3	50.4	21.7	8.6
Left to attend private course	0	0	0	0.4	0.8	2.7	0	0	1.0
Moved	1.7	5.0	3.1	3.3	4.2	2.7	6.1	8.7	3.7
Left due to crisis	1.7	20.0	1.0	2.0	2.2	1.2	2.3	4.3	2.1
Could not cope with study work	3.4	15.0	8.3	5.7	10.0	9.6	4.6	0	8.0
Thought had reached ability level	1.7	0	0	0.8	0.8	3.6	0.8	4.3	1.6
Experienced conflict at school	0	0	3.1	3.3	2.5	0.3	0.8	0	1.7
Felt school had no value	0	0	3.1	2.5	5.3	3.6	0.8	0	3.2
Left to find a job	1.7	5.0	12.5	16.4	17.5	23.7	12.2	4.3	16.8
Had/thought had a job	0	0	7.3	6.6	9.7	5.7	3.1	8.7	6.6
Needed money	0	0	2.1	4.5	2.5	2.1	1.5	0	2.4
Hated/disliked school	5.2	10.0	20.8	23.0	19.1	10.5	0.8	8.7	14.8
Outside pressures	0	5.0	1.0	2.5	1.9	1.8	0	0	1.7
Refused entry to a course	0	0	0	0	0	0.3	1.5	0	0.2
Other	74.1	35.0	20.8	13.5	14.4	16.5	7.6	30.4	17.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Information in this table should be read in the following way: as an example, <u>given</u> that a group of participants left school after completing Year 10, then 19.1% of those participants left because they hated or disliked school, 17.5% left to find a job, etc.

Table 9

Reasons for leaving school and school level achieved (Victoria, 1985)

This table shows, for each main reason for leaving school, the school level achieved.

Reason for leaving / School level	Primary	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12	Tertiary	Total
Did not get on with teachers	3.0	0	18.2	36.4	30.3	9.1	3.0	0	100.0
Asked to leave	6.7	2.2	15.6	40.0	31.1	2.2	0	2.2	100.0
Failed final year attempted	0	0	7.1	14.3	14.3	40.5	21.4	2.4	100.0
Completed final year	1.8	0	0	1.8	2.8	28.4	60.6	4.6	100.0
Left to attend private course	0	0	0	7.7	23.1	69.2	0	0	100.0
Moved	2.1	2.1	6.4	17.0	31.9	19.1	17.0	4.3	100.0
Left due to crisis	3.7	14.8	3.7	18.5	29.6	14.8	11.1	3.7	100.0
Could not cope	2.0	3.0	7.9	13.9	35.6	31.7	5.9	0	100.0
Reached ability level	5.0	0	0	10.0	15.0	60.0	5.0	5.0	100.0
Experienced conflict	0	0	13.6	36.4	40.9	4.5	4.5	0	100.0
Felt school had no value	0	0	7.3	14.6	46.3	29.3	2.4	0	100.0
Left to find a job	0.5	0.5	5.6	18.8	29.6	37.1	7.5	0.5	100.0
Had/thought had a job	0	0	8.4	19.3	42.2	22.9	4.8	2.4	100.0
Needed money	0	0	6.5	35.5	29.0	22.6	6.5	0	100.0
Hated/disliked school	1.6	1.1	10.6	29.8	36.7	18.6	0.5	1.1	100.0
Outside pressures	0	4.8	4.8	28.6	33.3	28.6	0	0	100.0
Refused course entry	0	0	0	0	0	33.3	66.7	0	100.0
Other	18.9	3.1	8.8	14.5	22.9	24.2	4.4	3.1	100.0
Total	4.6	1.6	7.6	19.3	28.5	26.3	10.3	1.8	100.0

Information in this table should be read in the following way: as an example, given the group of participants who left school because they did not get on with teachers, 36.4% left after completing Year 9, 30.3% left after completing Year 10, etc.

Although more extensive analysis of these data is desirable, some strong patterns may be discerned and are noted here.

a) Leaving school to find a job is an important reason for leaving school no matter what the level obtained, and is always cited more often than actually having a job to go to.

b) Hating or disliking school is more important as a reason for leaving school than to find a job for those who leave after completing Year 8, 9 and 10.

Table 10

Main reason for joining program and reason for leaving school (Victoria, 1985)

Reason for leaving school	Reason for joining program: EMPLOYMENT OBJECTIVES	EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES	PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT	EXTERNAL PRESSURES	BOREDOM/ NOTHING TO DO	LONELY/WANTED TO MAKE FRIENDS	NOTHING TO LOSE	FINANCIAL MOTIVES	OTHER POSITIVE MOTIVES	NO REASON	TOTAL
Did not get on with teachers	1.8	3.3	2.1	0	2.5	5.0	0	0	4.3	0	2.6
Asked to leave	2.1	4.2	3.7	0	7.4	5.0	3.1	0	2.6	0	3.6
Failed to pass course	4.2	2.3	2.1	0	9.1	10.0	3.1	0	0	0	3.3
Completed final year	8.4	10.2	7.4	0	6.6	0	3.1	0	6.8	25.0	8.3
Left to attend private course	0.3	2.3	0.5	0	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	1.0
Moved	1.5	4.4	9.6	0	2.5	0	0	0	1.7	25.0	3.8
Left to a crisis	0.6	2.6	5.3	0	2.5	5.0	0	0	0	0	2.1
Could not cope with work/study	9.6	6.7	5.9	20.0	5.8	10.0	9.4	0	12.0	0	7.9
Reached ability level	2.1	1.9	0.5	10.0	1.7	0	0	0	0.9	0	1.6
Experienced conflict at school	0.9	3.0	0.5	0	2.5	0	3.1	0	2.6	0	1.9
Felt school had no value	3.6	2.8	1.6	20.0	5.8	5.0	0	0	4.3	0	3.3
Left to find a job	22.9	16.5	17.0	0	8.3	5.0	15.6	28.6	14.5	0	16.9
Had/thought had a job	9.0	5.1	4.3	0	7.4	5.0	21.9	14.3	2.6	0	6.5
Needed money	2.1	3.0	2.1	0	0.8	0	0	14.3	2.6	25.0	2.4
Hated/disliked school	11.7	12.6	9.6	50.0	24.0	20.0	31.3	42.9	19.7	25.0	14.8
Outside pressures to leave	1.8	1.6	0.5	0	3.3	10.0	3.1	0	0	0	1.7
Refused course entry	0.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.7	0	0.2
Other	16.9	17.4	27.1	0	9.1	20.0	6.3	0	23.1	0	17.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Information in this table should be read as follows: for example, of those who gave as a reason for joining the program that they had nothing to lose, 31.3% hated or disliked school, 21.9% had/thought they had a job, etc.

Table 11

Main reason for joining program and reason for leaving school

Reason for leaving school / Reason for joining program	EMPLOYMENT OBJECTIVES	EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES	PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT	EXTERNAL PRESSURES	BOREDOM/ NOTHING TO DO	LONELY/WANTED TO MAKE FRIENDS	NOTHING TO LOSE	FINANCIAL MOTIVES	OTHER POSITIVE MOTIVES	NO REASON	TOTAL
Did not get on with teachers	18.2	42.4	12.1	0	9.1	3.0	0	0	15.2	0	100.0
Asked to leave	15.2	39.1	15.2	0	19.6	2.2	2.2	0	6.5	0	100.0
Failed to pass course	33.3	23.8	9.5	0	26.2	4.8	2.4	0	0	0	100.0
Completed final year of course	26.7	41.9	13.3	0	7.6	0	1.0	0	7.6	1.0	100.0
Left to attend private course	7.7	76.9	7.7	0	7.7	0	0	0	0	0	100.0
Moved	10.4	39.6	37.5	0	6.3	0	0	0	0	2.1	100.0
Left to a crisis	7.4	40.7	37.0	0	11.1	3.7	0	0	0	0	100.0
Could not cope with work/study	32.0	29.0	11.0	2.0	7.0	2.0	3.0	0	14.0	0	100.0
Reached ability level	35.0	40.0	5.0	5.0	10.0	0	0	0	5.0	0	100.0
Experienced conflict at school	12.5	54.2	4.2	0	12.5	0	4.2	0	12.5	0	100.0
Felt school had no value	28.6	28.6	7.1	4.8	16.7	2.4	0	0	11.9	0	100.0
Left to find a job	35.5	33.2	15.0	0	4.7	0.5	2.3	0.9	7.9	0	100.0
Had/thought had a job	36.6	26.8	9.8	0	11.0	1.2	8.5	1.2	3.7	0	100.0
Needed money	23.3	43.3	13.3	0	3.3	0	0	3.3	10.0	3.3	100.0
Hated/disliked school	20.9	28.9	9.6	2.7	15.5	2.1	5.3	1.6	12.3	0.5	100.0
Outside pressure	28.6	33.3	4.8	0	19.0	9.5	4.8	0	0	0	100.0
Refused course entry	33.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	66.7	0	100.0
Other	24.7	33.0	22.5	0	4.8	1.8	0.9	0	11.9	0	100.0
Total	26.2	34.0	14.9	0.8	9.6	1.6	2.5	0.6	9.2	0.3	100.0

Information in this table should be read as follows: for example, given that a group of participants had left school because they had experienced conflict at school, 54.2% cited educational objectives as their reasons for joining the program, 4.2% cited personal development objectives, etc.

Once again further analysis of these data are desirable, but it is worth observing that while educational objectives are those most commonly cited for most groups, employment objectives were the most important for those who left because they had failed a course, couldn't cope with school work, to find a job or to go to a job.

APPENDIX B: CURRICULUM CHARACTERISTICS

This appendix provides a little more information about some of the characteristics of curriculum which have been discussed in Chapter 3. These matters are dealt with at appropriate length, obviously, in the cited sources, but for readers seeking slight amplification this appendix may provide food for thought.

1. Orientations towards curriculum

Chapter 1 provided an extremely brief introduction to five basic orientations towards curriculum, and Chapter 3 has expanded these descriptions slightly. The purpose of this section is to give, for each orientation except 'social reconstruction' (adequately covered in Chapter 1), a slilghtly more detailed description.

The development of cognitive processes orientation is process-orientated. Although the relationship between the learner and the material to be learned is of prime concern, the greater importance is given to the learner. By focusing upon the learner it is possible to identify the itellectual processes involved in learning and foster these through appropriate activities and support. A learner becomes, in this way, intellectually autonomous and thus prepared to make decisions which occur beyond the institutional framework.

Curriculum activity is chosen, in this orientation, because it is particularly suitable for the development of cognitive processes. Just which activity this might be is by no means as important as that the intellectual faculties are exercised. This orientation clearly has substantial psychological underpinning.

The curriculum as technology orientation also focuses upon the relationship between learner and the material to be learned, but the greater weight is given to the content. This systematic approach makes much use of the notion of curriculum as a race to be run; the teacher is a trainer, seeking to elicit from the learner/competitor the best performance possible. Methods of training are evaluated in terms of efficiency. An approach such as this is likely to involve the use of 'high technolgy' and 'no-nonsense' methods such as are described frequently in the magazine Educational Technology. A classroom, in this orientation, is very much like a factory.

The two other orientations emphasise what is being taught/learned. In the personal relevance orientation it is the learner that dominates thinking about curriculum. Thus the purpose of educational activities is the development of the learner, and the learner must be a source of information about the direction in which learning should proceed with respect to content. Others participating in curriculum choice recognise the primacy of the learner's needs. In a sensse, this orientation could be contrdasted with social reconstruction by identifying it as personal reconstruction.

Such an orientation accords great responsibility to the educational institution. Indeed, it is hard to conceive of a practical limit to the demands which might be made.

In the final orientation, academic rationalism, it is once again content which is emphasised, but this time the content is externally determined. This traditional model is concerned with providing the young with the fruits of Western civilisation, and decisions about content are made by cultured adults. There may nevertheless be debate about what constitutes the appropriate content, since how knowledge is structured is evolutionary.

It may be helpful to represent the orientations on a diagram (rather simplistically) to emphasise the relative weights they accord to, on the one hand the learner or the content of the learning, and on the other, how things are learned or what is learned.

	HOW ONE LEARNS	WHAT ONE LEARNS
EMPHASIS ON LEARNER	cognitive processes	personal relevance
EMPHASIS ON CONTENT	curriculum as technology	academic rationalism

(Because the social reconstructionist view has as its major emphasis the expectations which society has of the learner, it does not fit the above categorisation).

2. Values in curriculum

Huebner's article discussing values arises partly from his concern that curriculum language is itself filled with myths which are dangerous because they are unrecognised and unchallenged.

There are two tyrannical myths - 'learning' and 'purpose'. It is as a consequence of the acceptance of these myths that mysteries are reduced to problems, doubts are reduced to error, and unknowables to 'yet-to-be-discoverables'. Common curriculum language, expecilaly that embedded in the Tyler representation, reinforces these myths, and to break from the myths requires that the language of 'learning' and 'purpose' be cast aside and other questions asked.

In reality, that which should concern those interested in curriculum is two fold: 'activities; and the 'existential situation of choice among different classroom activities'. Thus there, are two key questions: 'What can go on in the classroom?' and 'How can this activity be valued?'

The five major answers have been outlined in the main text: some expansion is provided here.

The technical value system uses a means-end rationale which aproaches education as, almost, an economic model. In this system the primary langauges of legitimation and control are psychological and sociological. Thus, for example, the ends or objectives may be determined by sociological analysis of individuals within the present or future social order. These are then translated into psychological language as 'concepts', 'skills', 'attitudes', and so on. In such a system evaluation is a matter of quality control.

One characteristic of the political value system is that it tends to be covert rather than overt. It results in the teacher having power (rercognising that the teacher does nevertheless need some minimal social power in order to influence others) and seeking to encourage support from others for that power. The teacher can be immune to political values only when there is complete equilibrium between teacher and educational community.

In the purely scientific value system schooling is valued solely for the knowledge which is gained about educational activities; this leads to the manipulation of educational activities in order to test hypotheses. Aims may be reduced to the maximisation of the attainment of information for teachers or educationists.

The two other value systems, aesthetic and ethical, are encountered much less frequently in educational circles.

The concern of the aesthetic value system is with symbolic and aesthetic meaning. Such a value system is symbolic with respect to Man's meaning, but also values characteristics such as balance, composition, design, closure, contentment, harmony, integrity and a sense of peace. At the same time it seeks to establish a psychic distance, and so values those aspects of life which are distanced from the world of production, consumption, and intent.

In an ethicl value system educational activities are considered as encounters between one being and another, and the system produces categories for valuing such encounters. The primary vehicle for legitimisation is metaphysical or perhaps religious language.

3. Agents of curriculum

Two different ways of approaching this are discussed in the body of text, and in addition an expansion has been given there of one of the agents - material to be learned (since this plays so great a part, as has just been seen, in facilitating an understanding of relationships between the various orientations): further expansion here could not have been made with appropriate brevity.

4. Representations of curriculum

The sources cited in Chapter 3 indicate the detail which must be supplied; full discussion is beyond the scope of the present document.